The Nation.

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The Week.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, upholding the Constitutionality of what is known as the inheritance tax, establishes several principles of the very highest importance. Speaking generally, we may say that Congress is now competent to seize for public uses such portion of the personal property of a dead person as it chooses. It is henceforth restrained by no Constitutional objections of equality or uniformity from establishing progressive rates; and the large revenue obtained by the English Exchequer from high death duties will no doubt tempt our rulers to adopt similar taxation. The decision of the court incidentally sustains the power of the State Governments also to impose a like tax. We may regard it as probably our future policy to appropriate, or confiscate, for the expenses of government, an increasingly large part of the property left by wealthy decedents. The fact that such property may consist of Government bonds exempted by law "from all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority," is held to be immaterial. The theory by which this conclusion is reached is, that a tax on the transfer of a bond, on the death of the owner, is not a tax on the bond. Whether such a theory has any foundation, either in fact or in logic, is now unimportant; it has received the highest legal sanction. The theory on which the tax on income from the rent of land was held unconstitutional—that a tax on the gain derived from property was a tax on the property—may seem inconsistent with the present decision; but that is also immaterial. No proposition seems less open to question than that a tax on the transfer of property has the same effect on value as a tax on the property itself; but that proposition is discountenanced by the present decision. We may summarize its scope and effect by saying that both State and national Governments have now the Constitutional power to take for public purposes the whole or any part of the personal property of every citizen upon his death. The principle that taxation should be proportioned to value is finally repudiated, and that of progressive taxation definitively established.

So far as the existing inheritance tax is concerned, the decision of the Supreme Court lightens it materially. The law provides that executors, etc., having in trust "any legacies or distributive shares arising from personal property, where the whole amount of such personal property as aforesaid shall exceed the sum of ten thousand dollars," shall pay certain taxes. It seems to have been held by the courts below that the limit of ten thousand dollars had application to the total value of the estate of the decedent. With this construction, every legacy, no matter how small, would be taxable if charged on an estate worth ten thousand dollars. The Supreme Court decides it was the intention of Congress to tax "the separate and distinct sums or items of personal property passing." The tax is "on the legacies and distributive shares." Hence no such shares, if below the limit, are taxable, no matter how large the estate of the decedent. A man might leave a million dollars and no tax would be imposed on it, provided he left it in small legacies, or his next of kin were of proper degree and sufficiently numerous. This construction of the statute is certainly a merciful one, as it exempts those who would suffer most from this tax.

The administration of the Post-office in Cuba clearly requires investigation by Congress, and not by the Department alone. Under the military régime the War Department and the President of the United States can do very much as they please. But the Postal Department of the United States Government is not competent legally, and it seems doubtful if it is practically, to administer the postal service of a country which is outside of our Union. This service, under the present conditions, should be wholly under the control of the military Government of Cuba. Under that government something like military discipline would be maintained. If our Postal Department is to operate in Cuba, it will be bound by no laws. All its acts there are extra-legal, and none of the restraints exist which experience has shown to be necessary. It seems that one of the officers in this anomalous Cuban postal service was formerly connected with that of Porto Rico. He was unable to account for a large sum of money which he had received, and was dismissed from the service, his bondsmen being obliged to make up the deficiency. This untoward event did not prevent him from getting his Cuban appointment. The civil-servce law evidently does not apply *ex proprio vigore* to such cases.

The armor-plate controversy in Congress comes down essentially to this—shall the Government allow contractors to make a confessedly exorbitant profit out of our alleged necessities as a "world-Power"? Even the Imperialists admitted that the price charged was inexcusably excessive; but as an Imperial Power we must have the ships and allow the armor-makers to pocket their enormous profits. Senator Lodge attempted to wear the Imperial purple for the purpose of helping out the contractors. It is an old trick of theirs to raise a loud alarum whenever they see Congress hesitating over their bills. At the time of the Chilian excitement in 1891-92, a well-known naval contractor was asked if he thought there would be war. "No," he said, with a wink, "only just war enough to get us our contracts." On Friday the armor people put up Lodge to threaten Germany, as a means of persuading the Senate not to look too closely into the cost of the plates. Politically, it was a grievous blunder, for which he was properly rapped over the knuckles next day by Senator Spooner, speaking for the Administration. Strange as it may seem to the war-breathing Senator from Massachusetts, Mr. Spooner and the President would actually like to win a few German-American votes in Wisconsin and Illinois next November. But Mr. Lodge's speech was, after all, merely symptomatic of the tendencies of Expansion. It is a policy of commercialism, pure and simple, which we are to go into only for "what there is in it for us."

The weakness of the opposition party in Congress is illustrated afresh by the fact that the Democratic members of the Merchant Marine Committee could not agree upon a report regarding the Ship-Subsidy Bill. Three of the minority have gone so far over to the Republican side on this issue that they sustain the principle of the subsidy, and content themselves with pointing out some defects in its application. The rest of the Democratic committeemen, under the lead of Representative Fitzgerald of Boston, present a cogent argument against the whole policy, as unnecessary and indefensible at a time when there is a remarkable increase in our shipbuilding, and then show how the pending bill would not promote foreign commerce in any case, as the money would go chiefly to fast passenger steamers which carry little freight. One section, indeed, as has been pointed out in the *Evening Post*, would allow an owner to run an empty ship and still earn a full subsidy. Such a showing ought to be fatal to any scheme. The real hope of defeating the subsidy job, however, rests not so much upon the arguments which some of the Democratic committeemen have to present if the bill shall come to a vote, as upon the doubts of the Republican managers whether the party can stand such a load during the campaign,

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The violent controversy now going on in the House of Representatives over oleomargarine illustrates the mischief of protectionism. The framers of the Constitution of the United States well knew what evil results had come from the jealousies of the different colonies, and wisely prohibited the States from levying duties on each other's products. Entire freedom of trade within the United States was thus secured, with most advantageous consequences. But, in an evil hour, the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce was invoked to suppress the use of a new article of food. The dairymen were induced to demand that Congress should impose a tax on oleomargarine—the agitation being promoted, as is generally believed, by an astute pork-packer who felt the competition—and that body weakly complied. The tax has not proved sufficient to accomplish the end in view, and it is now proposed to increase it to ten cents a pound on uncolored oleomargarine, and to authorize the State Governments to prohibit its importation altogether. The dangers of such legislation are very great. The number of substances which are colored, or otherwise treated so as to make their appearance attractive, is incalculable. Cotton goods are made to look like woollens; woollen goods are made to look like silks. Such processes are stigmatized as adulterations; but, as Mr. Gladstone showed, it would be a very serious matter to undertake to prevent adulteration. If Congress is to engage in this task, the whole trade of the country will be demoralized.

The hopelessness of reducing the pension payments of the United States is shown once more by the passage of the "Grand Army bill." Among other provisions, this bill contains a direction to the Pension Commissioner that he shall not refuse pensions to widows having an income not exceeding $250 a year. The limit had been previously fixed by the Pension Office at $90 a year, and a considerable increase in the roll will at once take place. An income of $250 a year does not appear large to well-to-do people, especially those who live in cities, but, considering the circumstances of the great mass of our population, it is practically sufficient for support. There are hundreds of thousands of laboring men who have to maintain themselves and their families on less than this, and they have to contribute their share of the taxes. Agricultural laborers as a class probably earn less than $250 a year on an average, and in the Southern States wages are below this figure. A host of widows maintain themselves on a smaller income without thinking of calling on the public for assistance, and it is impossible to ignore the fact that large numbers of young women have married old soldiers in order to secure pensions from the Government. One survivor of the war of 1812 was on the pension-rolls last June, but nearly 2,000 widows of these veterans are still on the lists. The war in the Philippines promises to furnish a formidable number of pensioners, the number of claims being estimated already at 25,000, and there seems to be no reason to expect that this generation will witness any decrease in its pension bill. Judging from experience, Congress will increase it at least as fast as natural causes diminish it.

One more nail in the coffin of the silver delusion was driven on Thursday in Colorado, where the Republican party showed itself practically reunited under the lead of Senator Wolcott. If Colorado is ready to acquiesce in the gold standard, what is there left for the silverites to cling to? It has been, of course, no theoretic consideration, but the compelling power of fact, which has cured the Colorado Republicans of their silver madness. Their State is more prosperous than ever. Even the silver-mining industry is not ruined. All the direful old prophecies of want stalking through the streets and blood up to the bridles have proved laughable failures. When Colorado went overwhelmingly for Bryan in 1896, it looked as if the Republicans could never recover it. Now they confidently hope to carry the State against him.

Kansas, which has at times had a superfluity of railroad regulation, now finds itself without any. The Supreme Court of that State has declared unconstitutional the "Court of Visitation" created by the Populist Government in 1897; and as that Government repealed the Railroad Commission law, the railroads are free to manage their business as they judge best—a condition of affairs which the community seems to contemplate with equanimity. The Court of Visitation was not needed except to carry out the anti-railroad policy of the Populists; it cost the State $40,000 for the extra session of the Legislature convened to create it, and its officers received $11,000 a year in salaries. One of the functions of this court was to charge the State with all costs incurred by complainants who failed to establish their charges against the railroads—a practice tending to encourage frivolous and malicious actions. The court, however, was enjoined from proceeding with its causes at a very early period in its existence, so that it has done little harm. The grounds on which the Supreme Court held it to be an unconstitutional tribunal, were that the Legislature had undertaken to endow it with administrative, judicial, and legislative powers. That separation of functions which is everywhere recognized in our Constitutional law, was in this case ignored. The decision of the Kansas Supreme Court removes nearly all trace of Populist rule from the statute-book, and the people of the State have apparently no disposition to commit their government again to the ignorant and unprincipled agitators who mismanaged it so shamefully.

The American voters in Hawaii, who cannot number more than a thousand, are evidently distracted with the difficulties which their new Constitution puts in the way of maintaining their supremacy. They are outnumbered many times by the natives, and also by the Portuguese, and they are anxiously appealing to the latter to take their part. The *Hawaiian Gazette* asserts that, as the Portuguese are more prosperous now than under the royal Government, they will of course support the American party; but our politicians know too well how ungrateful voters may be for prosperity. The *Gazette* also parades the calamity argument. Should the Royalists get control, it warns the Portuguese, the prosperity of the common people would go as suddenly as did Aladdin's palace. Capital would withdraw itself, land values would go down, stocks would depreciate, cheaper labor would struggle for fewer jobs, and classes fairly well-to-do would feel the coarse grind of poverty. It is an insult to the intelligence of the Portuguese, the *Gazette* concludes, to assume that they can be guilty of such political folly as to support a faction whose success would bring all these evils on the islands. Talk of this kind has a familiar sound in American ears, and we fear that Hawaiian politics will soon display the characteristics which make our own so wearisome and discouraging. Evidently the struggle for power will be extremely bitter, and it will be complicated, not with one race problem, but with two or three.

An ominous note is sounded by the *Gazette*, in the course of its appeal to the Portuguese. It tells them that, if they go with the aboriginal Royalists in opposition to their fellow-whites, they must expect to stand or fall with the Royalist party. "As such a reactionary outfit could not possibly stand alone, and would never be permitted to rule this country, whatever its voting majority might be, the result to the Portuguese is easy to forecast." But the *Gazette* has forgotten that Hawaii is now a territory of the United States, and that the opportunity for revolution has passed. If the white Americans wished to prevent the "voting majority" from ruling the country, they should not have called for annexation. They occupy a very different position from that of the whites in one of our Southern States. The latter can suppress the negro vote by constitutional measures; but the will of

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Congress is supreme in Hawaii, and the "voting majority" there, whether Royalist or not, must rule until Congress enacts other laws—unless resort is had to bulldozing and the shotgun.

The conference on the race problem at Montgomery, Ala., last week gave a number of persons an opportunity of expressing their views. Some of them offered solutions which will never be adopted, like the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This measure, which was an indispensable checkmate to any attempt to reduce the freedmen to slavery or peonage, will never be repealed. It is based on a theory of equal rights which will never be perfectly realized, but which must always be maintained as an ideal in popular government. To repeal it would be to throw away the results of the civil war, bought with such a great price. It would imply that no negro, however virtuous and however intelligent, can be the equal of any white man. No doubt the attitude of the present Administration in the Philippines encourages some of the Southern white men to demand the repudiation of the Fifteenth Amendment. The mind of the country, one of them said, since the acquisition of the Philippines, is in a more favorable condition to consider such a proposition than ever before. That may be true; but the mind of the country is not yet made up.

The position taken at the conference by ex-Gov. MacCorkle of West Virginia was a lofty one. He declared that the constitutional exercise of the suffrage is the underlying principle of our system of republican government, any impairment of which is to be regarded as dangerous in tendency. He did not deny that grave political complications have arisen from giving the suffrage to the black people of the South; but he strongly opposed the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment. The solution of the race problem which he offered is entirely practicable. How can the people of the South remove their political complexities, give the negro the franchise, and at the same time not imperil their civilization? Let them adopt, he answered, an honest and inflexible educational and property basis, administered fairly for black and white. Such a system would appeal to the elements most needed in good citizenship, the desire for the acquisition of property and of education. Such a franchise would not subject the white people to the political domination of the negroes. The three States of the South in which the negro element is strongest are South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Were the suffrage restricted to those owning their own homes, the white voters of South Carolina would outnumber the colored two to one; of Mississippi nearly four to one; of Louisiana three and one-half to one. Nearly the same proportions would exist with an educational qualification. The real problem consists in the attitude of the white people of the South toward the negroes, and its solution is to be found in persuading them to accept the enlightened policy so eloquently urged by Gov. MacCorkle.

There is a furious competition between the parties to see which can express most "sympathy" for the Boers, but neither of them proposes to transmute sympathy into action. Even Mr. Bryan does not contend that he could do more than President McKinley has done—that is, come forward with good offices. No one outside bedlam could think of forcible intervention, or the threat of it. As far as any moral utterance by our Government is concerned, the blood of the Filipinos chokes us when we try to protest against the treatment of the Boers. Self-interest certainly commands us to keep hands off. Everybody knows this, yet the hollow and humbugging resolutions of sympathy continue to be offered and adopted. Even the Boer delegates must see that the whole thing is a sham. Intending to do nothing, it is folly to talk as though we meant to do something. Of Boer planks in any platform, we may say that, so far as they are not pure clap-trap, they are playing with fire, and are even, in Lowell's language, "a national scandal, and not merely so, but a national detriment, inasmuch as they serve to foster in foreign statesmen a profound misapprehension of the American people, and of the motives which influence them in questions of public policy."

The Primrose "Grand Habitation" has become a high day in the calendar of English Conservatives, and Lord Salisbury was but following precedent in delivering himself at the annual meeting of the Primrose League on Wednesday week. Founded primarily to combat Irish Home Rule, the League expects its speakers to denounce the idea of separate government for Ireland, and accordingly Lord Salisbury did it, pointing the old moral afresh with the new lesson from South Africa. Even his hearers, however, must have thought his hard words about the Irish exceedingly tactless and unhappy at the present juncture, with the Queen just returned from Ireland, and all the court and country overflowing with blandishments and wearing the shamrock. But Salisbury is noted for his "blazing indiscretions." Apart from his infelicitous references to the Irish, the British Premier's speech was a solemn, almost a gloomy, description of the burdens of Empire. England was without a friend. For the defence of her own she must depend, not upon the good will or friendly coöperation among other nations, but upon her own right arm and good sword. Her present military establishment was clearly inadequate. But what was his Lordship's remedy? The Primrose League must turn itself into a rifle club! Conscription would never do. The voters would not stand that. So let every nobleman and Primrose Dame learn how to handle a Lee-Metford. The truth is, that Lord Salisbury is shrinking before the responsibilities of Empire. He referred to Mr. Gladstone's unwillingness to assume Imperial burdens; he himself is held by a large element of his own party to be doing the same thing. There is a strong and pushing body of Conservative Forwards who openly demand conscription. They say, and they have the military authorities with them, that England has only been playing at Empire, in the military aspect. They point to Russia's army of nearly 1,000,000 men, on a peace footing, France's peace strength of 573,000, Germany's of 591,000, and they ask how long Great Britain, with a peace strength of only 248,000 men, can be expected to compete with such rivals.

Some interesting particulars concerning the precautionary financial measures for the relief of famine taken by the Indian Government are furnished by Mr. Clinton Dawkins, the retiring Finance Minister. A yearly grant "for famine relief and insurance" appears in the budget, having been introduced by Sir John Strachey in 1878. Taking the years from 1868 to 1878, he found that the expenditure for the relief of famine during the decade had amounted to 165,000,000 rupees. He regarded the period as somewhat abnormal, and concluded that 15,000,000 rupees per annum would be a proper allowance for such emergencies. That sum was therefore charged in the budget as an insurance fund, to be employed either in direct relief when famine occurred, or in irrigation works and railways intended to prevent famine and to facilitate relief. During the fifteen years preceding 1896, the amount expended in direct relief averaged only 300,000 rupees per annum, the remainder being devoted to "protective works." The famine commission in the seventies calculated that a net-work of 20,000 miles of railway would provide for the transportation of food to every part of India likely to suffer from famine, and these railways have now been constructed. It is claimed, also, that all has been accomplished in the construction of irrigation works that is likely to be efficacious. During the past financial year Burmah alone has sent 427,000 tons of rice for distribution throughout India by means of the railways. The real problem now is, according to the London *Times*, not how to get food in time to the famishing population, or even to provide further means of irrigation, but how to find work for people impoverished by crop failures.

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THE POST-OFFICE SCANDAL IN HAVANA.

The Cubans are reported to be delighted at the evidence of American rascality in connection with the Cuban Post-office under American management. They can scarcely be blamed, so much have we lectured and patronized them on the subject of honest administration. Secretary Root boasted last December that the "collection and disbursement of the funds" in Cuba had been marked, under our rule, by a degree of "honesty wholly unknown in former administrations." And Postmaster-General Smith, in an article published only a fortnight ago, gloried (somewhat prematurely), in this very matter of the Cuban post-office, over "the substitution of American methods, with their energy, *integrity*, and thoroughness, for the old corrupt, uncertain, irresponsible administration." No wonder the Cubans are standing about with their tongues in their cheeks as they see the growing figures of the defalcation by American officials. Col. Bliss had lately to discharge a lot of Cuban employees in the Havana custom-house for dishonesty. American hands went up in horror. Would the natives never learn that offices were not to be sought for pickings and stealings? Well, it is now the turn of the Cubans to hold up their hands.

What has happened is the direct result of the men and methods employed. The Administration has simply violated the principles laid down by one of its own officers, and the disaster has naturally followed. Secretary Root declared in his annual report that wherever, in our insular government, "it is necessary to employ Americans, a system of civil-service examination should be provided." Now what was done in the appointment of these Havana suspects? The glib Postmaster-General described the system under which they were selected as one "without academic examination, but based on tried service and personal knowledge." But whose "personal knowledge" in the case of these two Indiana men—who, without previous postal experience, were given places in the Havana post-office, with the result that they are reported short in their accounts from $50,000 to $200,000? Why, the evidence seems clear that the First Assistant Postmaster-General was the man, and that Mr. Perry Heath was simply throwing a good thing into the hands of a friend and business associate. He laboriously explains, it is true, that it was only his brothers who were associated with the alleged defaulter; but Mr. Heath has some uncommonly convenient brothers. It was one of them who took stock in a New York bank, and brought about that mysterious transfer of the postal deposits which was maliciously commented upon last January. Mr. Heath, in fact, appears to be a little too openly desirous of turning the streams of McKinley prosperity into the family pocket. If it is true that he is the political sponsor of the men who have brought this stain upon the American name in Cuba, their decapitation ought to be accompanied by his own. He could still retain his position of Chairman of the Republican campaign committee "on literature," and continue sending out to the country press his beautiful tributes to the superior virtue of his party.

It may not have been feasible at first to put the Cuban postal service under the direction of the War Department. Mr. Smith says the work was turned over to the Post-office Department "by direction of the President." Then, to administer it, Hanna named one of his Ohio campaigners. When the political situation in Ohio was considered grave last fall, Rathbone was sent for in hot haste to come from Havana and save the imperilled policy of Expansion. The expenses of his trip, $2,000, were charged to the Cuban Treasury—thus illustrating, while helping to save, Expansion. At that very time the stealing was going on in Cuba. Beginning with last July the postal receipts were suddenly cut in half. This astonishing reduction continued for eight or nine months, but Rathbone and his auditors thought it the most natural thing in the world. Equally natural was it for him to charge the Cubans $15,000 to $20,000 a year for the support of so wonderful an official as he. All was of a piece. In addition to the stealing and overcharges, which lay on the face of the accounts, Rathbone and his coparceners appear to have been going into every speculative business venture that came their way. Both officially and privately, they were living up to the proud boast of McKinley's next friend, Congressman Grosvenor, that the Republican party was going to make every dollar it could out of the islands it had taken from Spain.

They did not proclaim from the housetops the existence of a great printing establishment in Muncie, Ind., which was unknown to the world till the stealing in the Cuban Post-office began to transpire. It was there all the time, but nobody knew of its special facilities for filling large Government contracts for blanks and stationery used in the Havana post-office. Of course, there can be no question of collusion or favoritism. It was only what Postmaster-General Smith calls "personal knowledge" that led Director Rathbone and Neely to give the big contracts to the Muncie firm. Personal knowledge and personal interest account for everything. People in the Indiana town are "surprised," the dispatches say, at the developments. They cannot understand the denial of the Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Heath; that he was responsible for Neely's appointment. In Muncie it was taken for granted that Neely got his job solely as "a close political friend of Heath." In fact, a puzzled Muncie man who was himself an applicant for a position in Cuba, is exhibiting a letter from Senator Hanna stating that his application must go to Perry S. Heath for endorsement. This is queer; the mixing up of the Heath family in the business is odd; the shortage of over $100,000 in Havana is mysterious. We tremble for the foundations of our Expansionists, who assured us that the spectacle of our pure and efficient public service in Cuba was going to react upon us and check corruption at home.

The revelations have come at a critical time. It cannot be denied that they cast a cloud of suspicion over our whole insular service. Why should the looting have been confined to the Havana post-office? People will suspect rottenness all along the line; and their fears will not be allayed by the unaccountable delays of the War Department in rendering a full accounting. Details of insular expenditure were requested of Secretary Root last January, by Senate resolution, but have not yet been furnished. Why not?

POPULISM IN THE SADDLE.

In 1896 the Democratic party nominated for President a man who was essentially a Populist, and adopted a platform which was largely a restatement of Populist views as these had been expressed by the People's party in 1892. Four years ago, however, the Democrats at least enjoyed the poor privilege of holding their convention first, and seeing the Populists accept a candidate whom they themselves had already named. This year Populism is in the saddle, and, by the action taken in its national convention at Sioux Falls on Thursday, it has put the historic old party in a position of absolute subordination to a nondescript organization of political odds and ends.

The Populist managers realized their advantage, and were merciless in the use of their power. The permanent chairman of the convention told the story of the organization and its successes in converting Democracy. Speaking of the Chicago convention of 1896, he declared, with entire truth, that "the spirit of Populism sat upon their throne and in their convention, and under the name of Democracy they commenced a contest for Populist principles, embodying in their platform nearly every one of the paramount issues that had been declared in the People's party platform of four years before." Recalling the fact that Alexanders and Cæsars, after their wars of triumph, led their most distinguished captives before the assembled rejoicing multitude, he said that, "if the People's party were to indulge in such a parade, they would have the right to lead in procession before the assembled people and the Government as the chief and great-

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est captive the Democratic party and the platform they had adopted." The captive is far more helpless in 1900 than in 1896. Four years ago the Democrats could at least claim that they took the initiative in the matter. They nominated Bryan on the 10th of July, while the Populist convention did not meet until the 22d. This year the Democratic convention will not assemble until the 4th of July, while its predestined candidate for President stands already nominated by the Populists.

The spread-eagleism of nominating oratory was so thoroughly monopolized at Sioux Falls in May that the leavings will be stale by July at Kansas City. What so-called Democratic Senator can equal Senator Allen as eulogist when the Nebraska Populist has already pronounced Bryan "a statesman of ripe experience, a philosopher and orator without a peer on this or any other continent"; "clearly the greatest American citizen of the age"; "this magnificent man, this matchless statesman, hero, and orator"? Whence can there go to Kansas City any rival of "Cyclone" Davis, the unique product of Texas Populism, with his impassioned declaration that "we are ready to give Bryan our votes again; yea, more, we are ready to worship at his shrine, and give to him the hot blossoms of a noble surrender as the only hope, the only salvation of this nation"? And who will have the assurance to compete with Butler, the Populist Senator from North Carolina, in his glowing affirmation that "there are times when the human tongue can grow eloquent in painting the sterling growth of some great character whose virtues are not fully known to the world; but when the duty is devolved upon any man to attempt to express with human tongue anything to add to the greatness, the sterling worth of such a man as William J. Bryan, the human tongue is not equal to the task"?

The truth is, that there is nothing left for the Kansas City convention in this matter of a Presidential candidate except to say "Ditto." As regards a platform, the Populists have also saved the Democratic convention a good deal of trouble. Here is to be found the reaffirmation of the demand for free silver coinage, which was the cornerstone of the Chicago platform four years ago and has been reaffirmed in many Democratic State conventions during the last few weeks. Here, too, is a fresh plank which is sure of endorsement at Kansas City, denouncing the gold standard act recently passed by Congress as "the culmination of a long series of conspiracies." An anti-injunction resolution is ready for transfer bodily to the Democratic platform. Indeed, there are but few in the long list of principles which are not now "good Democratic doctrine," as such doctrine is interpreted by the new school of leaders.

One thing the Populist leaders might have forborne to do, but they would not. They were forcing the Democrats to accept their candidate for President. They were framing a platform which must be endorsed in its essential features at Kansas City. Should they name also a candidate for Vice-President, and try to deprive the Democratic convention of control over anything? There were men at Sioux Falls who inclined to the side of mercy. They favored the idea of making up a roll of statesmen, and allowing the Democrats the privilege of a choice among them. But the advocates of moderation were outvoted two to one, and ex-Congressman Towne of Minnesota was nominated for Vice-President. The Democrats can either take him or make themselves responsible for two tickets again—Bryan and Towne, and Bryan and ———.

It is an humiliating spectacle which is now presented by what was once the Democratic party. No longer a clearly defined and powerful opposition to the existing Administration, but, shorn of its old influence and claims to respect, it has become a mere tender to an organization which is in a pitiful minority, and which the country detests.

THE FUTURE OF THE IRON TRADE.

Every one knows, in a general way, that iron is the basis on which the modern industrial system rests. The uses of machinery are manifold, and machines are made of iron. Even in the production of iron, iron is indispensable, and the vast industry of transportation is carried on by iron mechanism. Very few persons not connected with the business, however, have more than a vague idea of the wonderful engineering skill which has brought the production of iron, especially in this country, to its present degree of perfection, or can form an opinion concerning the possibilities of the future. We are indebted to a correspondent of the London *Times* for a series of brilliant letters, entitled "American Engineering Competition," which present the whole situation in the clearest possible light, and enable us to form an intelligent opinion concerning the conditions which will determine international supremacy in this great industry.

For the successful making of pig-iron, there is need of coal, ore, and flux; and it used to be said that the supremacy of England would never be threatened, because of her natural advantages in the location of these materials. Ironstone, coal, and limestone are there found close together, and all near to the sea. Time has tested this argument, and weakened it. English coal has now to be raised from deeper levels, and English ores are inferior to many found elsewhere. It is no longer true that the ore used in English furnaces is found at hand. Nearly all that is now used in making Bessemer steel is brought from Spanish mines a thousand miles away. In 1898 there were produced in the United Kingdom 8,631,000 tons of pig-iron of all kinds, to make which nearly five and a half million tons of ore were imported. So far as English supremacy depends on the natural juxtaposition of raw materials, it is certainly no longer assured. It is now ten years since the production of pig-iron in the United States equalled that in England. Only fifteen years ago the English production was double our own; now ours is the greater by one-half. Our protective tariff long since closed this market to the English iron-masters, and our domestic demand has been so extensive as to absorb, until recently, the entire product of our furnaces. But it is now evident that we can produce more iron than is needed in this country, and our manufacturers are already entering markets which have drawn their supplies almost exclusively from Great Britain. The question which confronts the English iron-masters is whether the conditions of production in this country are such as to make our invasion of neutral markets a permanent danger. If our exports of iron should continue to increase at the present rate, the exports of England must decline.

That our exports of iron will continue to increase seems on many accounts probable. It is true that little ore is obtained in the Pittsburgh region, the great centre of the iron industry, and the distance of the furnaces from the Minnesota ore beds is about as great as that which the iron-makers of England have to contend with. Nevertheless, the prodigious improvements in the arts of mining and transporting ores have reduced the cost to an extremely moderate figure, and the equally wonderful development of machinery for the manipulation of coke, ore, and even molten iron has made the expense of the manufacture permanently low. The use of machinery, is, of course, as free to the English as to ourselves; but the alertness of our engineers in invention, and in the application of inventions, is hardly surpassable. Were governmental policy not involved, the race might be a fairly even one. The advantage which our manufacturers enjoy in the matter of coal might be offset by certain drawbacks in transportation, and by various hindrances of minor importance, which amount to a good deal in the aggregate. But governmental policy is involved, and it may be decisive.

For, as the correspondent of the *Times* was frankly told by our iron-masters, it is their fixed intention to make use of their tariff protection to compete not only in the neutral markets of the world, but also in the British home market. A prominent steel-maker, the head of one of the most important corporations in the country, recently declared that he would sell rails abroad at cost price sim-

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ply to retain a hold on the market for use in duller times. It seems to be the intention of our manufacturers, when the reaction in trade comes, or when supply is in excess of demand, to keep up prices in this country by limiting the supply, and to apply the profits so made to forcing the export trade. The policy resembles that which has been sometimes adopted by our great railroads. In their struggles with one another they have carried through-freight at a loss, and obtained the sinews of war by keeping up their local rates, the natural conditions operating in the same way as a protective tariff. The alarm that is now said to exist in Germany over a possible outpour of low-priced American iron affords some confirmation of the existence of such intentions on the part of our manufacturers as the English observer reports.

The carrying out of such intentions would be in harmony with the doctrine of protection. The protective policy is intended to aid manufacturers by enabling them to charge higher prices to domestic consumers. They are of course at liberty to make use of these abnormal gains to sell their products at cost, or at less than cost, to foreign customers. The English iron-makers are defenceless. Their Government will not aid them by protective duties; our Government does so aid our iron-makers. Moreover, it is proposed to subsidize our shipping to such an extent as almost to enable our manufacturers to export iron without paying anything for ocean transportation. The problem of obtaining supremacy for American iron in the markets of the world thus becomes very simple. Assuming that our iron-makers can produce iron as cheaply as those of England, and assuming that our people will pay bounties on exports of iron, the conclusion follows that English producers will be undersold, both abroad and at home. They have no monopoly, either in their own country or elsewhere; our manufacturers have a monopoly of the home market, and propose to obtain one abroad by means of subsidies granted by the American people.

We may justly rejoice in the splendid engineering achievements of our iron-makers, not the least glorious of which is the introduction of machinery that relieves human beings of some of the most painful and dangerous forms of toil. We should also rejoice were they able without injustice to supply the markets of the world with their products. That would mean that the cost to mankind of the most essential article in modern industry was lessened by legitimate progress. But if supremacy in the iron markets of the world is to be won for our iron-masters by means of taxes paid by our own citizens, it would be simply deplorable. Such supremacy is precarious and unnatural, because it is unfair and unjust. The policy that promotes it is sure to arouse a retaliatory spirit in all countries except England, and, as the preferential duties of Canada show, the colonies of England are not governed by the principles of free trade. Such supremacy may flatter our national pride; but, as it will be paid for by taxation, it will be economically delusive and eventually disastrous.

STATUS OF AUSTRALIAN FEDERATION.

The South African war has had the curious effect of both dulling and intensifying the interest of the English people in the Australian Commonwealth bill, now before Parliament. But for the war, with its absorptions, the measure would have bulked larger in the public mind than it has; yet the war, with its extraordinary manifestations of colonial loyalty to the Empire, has made proud and interested attention to all colonial matters easier than ever before for the British press and Parliament. The Australian troops in South Africa have lent new distinction to the Australian delegates in London. Yet it was precisely the supposed lack of Imperial sentiment which made Mr. Morley think, fifteen years ago, that Australian Federation could not be brought about "for a very long time to come, if ever." "Is it possible to suppose," he asked in his review of Seeley's book on the expansion of England, "that the Canadian lumbermen and the Australian sheep-farmers will cheerfully become contributors to a Greater British Fund for keeping Basutos, Pondos, Zulus quiet to please the honorable gentlemen from South Africa?"

Not exactly this test, but one much more severe, has now been applied, and we have seen Australians contributing not only money but lives to the cause of Imperial supremacy in South Africa. It is, therefore, as well-approved and loyal children of the crown that the Australians now seek Imperial consent to their act of Federation. Why is it not spontaneously given? Why has the English Government so long kept back the bill, and at last introduced it in Parliament, as was done on Monday, with a refusal to accept one clause? It is because that clause seems to threaten Imperial unity and supremacy. The clause—No. 74 in the bill—is one restricting the right of appeal from the High Court of Australia to the Queen in Council. This restriction relates explicitly only to "any matter involving the interpretation of this Constitution, or the Constitution of a State"; but the right of the Australian Parliament is reserved further to limit appeals in the future. As explained by the Australian delegates, the thing comes down to this:

"Litigants in all existing Australian courts will in future have the choice of an appeal to the Privy Council, as now, or of an appeal to the High Court in Australia. If a litigant chooses the latter alternative, he will—with one exception—still have the right of appeal by leave (as in the case of Canada) from the Supreme Court in Australia to the Supreme Court of the Empire. The one exception relates to questions involving the interpretation of the Constitution. Even this exception is waived in cases where the public interests of some part of her Majesty's dominions other than the State or the Commonwealth are involved."

This certainly seems a very slight infringement upon the judicial prerogative of the crown; but the British Government scents danger in it, and, as Mr. Chamberlain explained in the Commons, feels compelled to ask the Australians to amend their bill in this particular. It is on this single point that the whole discussion hinges. The Australian delegates say that they cannot yield. They have no power to accept any amendment, they contend, and assert that, if any is insisted upon, the whole bill will have to be referred back to the people, with infinite trouble and the possibility that the labor of years will at last be thrown away. Dispatches from Melbourne seem to show that the various Australian Premiers, there in conference, are strongly against any amendment, and that the people are for "the bill, the whole bill." The Australian delegates also allege a grievance against Mr. Chamberlain. He, or at least the Colonial Office, was consulted about the objectionable clauses in advance of their adoption. After some modifications, he was understood to have given his assent to the form of clause 74 as it now stands. Why has he changed his mind? The whole Liberal party is willing to let the Australians have their way; why should the Conservatives hesitate in this time of universal gush about the Colonies and the Empire?

It was a ticklish position for Mr. Chamberlain, but he seems to have come out of it with his customary adroitness. While insisting upon the right of appeal to the Privy Council, he proposes to reconstitute the Council itself, by the addition of a generous colonial representation. Four new colonial Lords of Appeal—one each from Australia, Canada, South Africa, and India—will surely very much modify the opposition to amending the Australian bill so as to admit of the right of appeal in all cases. Indeed, the Australian Premiers were sounded in advance by Mr. Chamberlain, and telegraphed that while they still preferred the enactment of the bill as it stood, they could not deny that "the proposed new court will be attractive to people in Australia." In fact, Mr. Chamberlain appears very cleverly to have made out of his difficulty a triumph, sensibly advancing the idea of Imperial unity, at the same time that he, in fact, exercised the power of Imperial veto. And there may be more in his proposal than a compromise or bauble. It may, in the end, lead to a reform in the House of Lords. This was acutely forecasted by

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Lord Rosebery in his speech at the dinner to the Australian delegates the other night, when he said that it would be a remarkable result of their mission if the "doors of reform in the House of Lords" were thrown open, and if "from this Commonwealth Bill of Australia there came a movement, unexpected by the Government or Parliament itself, that should, by the demand for a really Imperial tribunal, constitute a really Imperial Senate." Everybody knows, at any rate, that changes in the British Constitution are much more likely to be brought about in such indirect and silent ways than by root-and-branch methods.

In one way or another, and for good or ill, Australian Federation may be considered as now practically effected. It has been long in coming to birth. Earl Grey urged it as far back as 1849; Lord Derby suggested it in 1883; but it was not till 1889 that the movement was formally taken up by the Australians themselves, under the lead of Sir Henry Parkes. Its ups and downs and trials and ultimate triumph are an oft-told tale. On the final vote, taking the five colonies together, the electors favoring Federation numbered 371,850, as against 137,400 opposing it. There can thus be no doubt that the change is desired by the Australian people. As for the statesmen who framed and finally carried through the bill, their competence for a difficult task has been proved, and may well be compared to that of the fathers of the American Federation, by whose labors the Australian Federalists confessedly profited, and by whose spirit they professed themselves inspired.

MARSHAL DE LUXEMBOURG.

PARIS, May 3, 1900.

The modern school of history, founded entirely upon the use of original documents, has many advantages, the principal of which is the search after truth independently of any transient theories. It has also some disadvantages: it deadens to a certain extent the critical sense of the writer; it leads also to the publication of works which become too long, too copious, as the writer is anxious to show all his documents to the reader. It is to this tendency that we owe the already long series of volumes which M. Frédéric Masson is publishing on Napoleon and his family. We all read the first volumes with eagerness, we continue to read every volume as it appears; but there is a limit even to curiosity, and it cannot be denied that the total disregard of condensation and abbreviation is sometimes resented by the reader.

The Duke d'Aumale took great pains to condense in a few volumes the innumerable documents which he had in his possession on the great Condé. He added to each volume a sometimes long appendix, in which the most important documents were published textually. The volumes of the History of the Princes of Condé were, besides, published separately, sometimes at long intervals; the public was not tired by them. The personality of the author, moreover, lent a peculiar interest to the work, and in some parts a peculiar charm, as the Duke was a stylist. He wrote the best of French, and some of his portraits remind one forcibly of Saint-Simon's famous portraits. The archives of Chantilly are very rich in documents of the times which preceded the first Revolution. M. Pierre de Ségur has used with success some few documents concerning the last of the Princesses of Condé. His researches in the archives induced him to go back to an earlier period, which is best represented at Chantilly, and he gives us to-day the result of his investigations in a volume entitled 'The Youth of Marshal de Luxembourg (1628-1668).' This is the first volume of a series which will cover the whole life of the famous marshal.

François de Montmorency-Boutteville, Marshal Duke of Luxembourg, was, in the latter part of his life, the most important state personage after the King. The éclat of his campaigns, says Saint-Simon, his bitter enemy, had given him great credit. "The Court had almost become his court, such was the assembly about him; and the town, dazzled by the *tourbillon* and by his open and popular ways, was devoted to him. People of all ranks thought they must pay court to him. He captivated the troops and the general officers." Nobody has, however, hitherto attempted to write a biography of this famous captain. His father perhaps left a deeper mark on the popular mind than he did himself, as he had a most tragic end. He was well known in his time as Boutteville the Duellist, and became a victim of what can only be called the folly of duelling under Louis XIII. After a number of duels, François de Montmorency-Boutteville, the father of the Marshal, had to fly to Brussels, to avoid being arrested; but he was so bold that, upon some new provocations, he returned to Paris and fought a duel in broad daylight on the Place Royale, which was then the fashionable centre of the town. According to the custom of the time, the seconds fought against each other. Bussy d'Amboise was killed. Another second was severely wounded. Boutteville and Des Chapelles, who killed Bussy d'Amboise, fled from Paris, but they were pursued by order of the King, finally arrested and taken to the Bastille. The Montmorency family and Madame de Boutteville interfered in vain. The King and Richelieu were inflexible, wishing to cure the French nobility of a habit which deprived them yearly of many brave officers. Boutteville and Chapelles were beheaded on the Place de Grève, and both died with the greatest bravery. Boutteville refused to have his eyes bandaged before offering his head to the executioner.

The Countess of Boutteville found herself a widow at the age of twenty; she was in the family way, and a son was born to her on January 8, 1628. She had already two daughters when she lost her husband; the elder was two years old, the second, Isabel, became later the famous Duchess de Châtillon. The children were brought up at Précy-sur-Oise, very near Chantilly, and a great intimacy sprang up between the two houses. Isabel inspired Gaspard de Coligny, grandson of the Admiral, with a great passion. The two families, the Montmorencys and the Châtillons, opposed their marriage, but Isabel eloped with Gaspard to Brussels, where they were married. Soon afterwards a reconciliation took place by the intervention of Mazarin. Young Boutteville showed from his boyhood a great love of pleasure and of war. Condé took him away from Paris, where he led a dissipated life, and Boutteville followed him, as his aide-de-camp, to Catalonia, and afterwards to Flanders. He distinguished himself at the great battle of Lens fought by Condé against the Spaniards. This victory, following that of Rocroy, made Condé, who was Boutteville's patron, the most important personage in the kingdom. In the troubles of the Fronde, Boutteville tied his fate to Condé. His sister, the Duchess de Châtillon, was one of the chief actors in the Fronde, a civil war in which love intrigues and complications had as great a part as political ambitions and interests. As for Boutteville, he was among the young, profligate, and brave participants who went under the name of the Petits-maîtres.

Condé at first took the royal side, and brought back to Paris the young King, who had been obliged to flee with his mother and with Mazarin to Saint-Germain; but the service which Condé rendered to the royal cause was so great that he became too powerful. He contrived in many ways to offend the Queen, he treated Mazarin with contempt. His arrest was secretly planned by Mazarin and the Queen. It took place in the Louvre, and Condé was sent to the Bastille. The fury of his friends was as great as their astonishment. Boutteville, always faithful to him, made many plans for the deliverance of his general. One of the wildest was the project of seizing as hostages the nieces of Mazarin. When all hope of delivering Condé had to be abandoned, Boutteville left Paris and retired to Précy. The Princess de Condé was at Chantilly, with Condé's mother. They were soon joined by the Duchess de Châtillon, "the cleverest woman in France," says Lenet, Condé's great confidant. Grave resolutions were taken at Chantilly, civil war was prepared for the deliverance of Mazarin's victim. Boutteville, the most ardent in the cause, was charged with recruiting soldiers; Mme. de Châtillon won over to the cause the Duke de Nemours, her lover, one of the most accomplished gentlemen of his time.

Mazarin became alarmed and sent troops by way of Saint-Denis towards Chantilly. All the inhabitants of the château fled secretly in various directions. Boutteville galloped away northward with some of his soldiers and joined Turenne at Stenay, a fortified little town on the Meuse which became the headquarters of the rebels of the time. For Turenne, owing to the passion which he felt for Madame de Longueville, had joined Mazarin's enemies and become an ally of the Spaniards. The campaign was short. Boutteville took a very brilliant part in it, and arrived with a troop of horse very near Vincennes, where Condé had been transported from the Bastille, and for a moment he hoped to deliver him. Such was the fear of the Court that Condé was secretly carried from Vincennes to a small fortress named Marcoussis, near Limours, in the apanage of the Duke d'Orléans. Turenne had determined to march on Vincennes, with the Spaniards; he had to change his plans when he heard the news. The only battle of the war took place before Rethel, and it was final. The Spaniards suffered a complete defeat. The wing led by Turenne had the advantage at first, but his success was of brief duration. The last phase of the battle was an utter rout; the royal troops

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took four thousand prisoners. Turenne fled with a few men from the battle-field; it was the only occasion in his life when he was among rebels, and he swore to himself that he would never again join a rebellion. He became from that day the most loyal of men, and his brief acquaintance with the Spaniards inspired him with a desire to meet them as enemies.

After this short war, Condé was set free. His return to Paris was triumphal; but his reconciliation with the Court was not of long duration. Boutteville was very active in all the intrigues and movements of the time, as was also Mme. de Châtillon. The war soon broke out again. Condé made Boutteville Governor of a place which he had kept in Burgundy, of which province he was Governor and which he had just exchanged for Guyenne. The defence of Bellegarde against the royal troops was a very brilliant chapter in the military life of Boutteville. It is told at great length in his volume by M. de Ségur, who gives most interesting details about the condition of Burgundy during the civil war—the desolation of the province, divided into two parties, called the Frondeurs and the Albions. Why the latter name was given to the supporters of the royal cause, is not easy to explain. After the capitulation of Bellegarde, Boutteville sought Condé in Brussels. This city was the centre of the emigration which joined Condé. M. de Ségur tells us how Condé and the French émigrés spent their time while the armies went into winter quarters. Condé afterwards repented much the part he had taken, which had reduced him to be a mere tool of the Spaniards. The famous picture called "The Repentance," which is at Chantilly in the "Gallery of Battles," shows him tearing from the book of history the pages in which his campaigns were written. After the peace of the Pyrenees, Condé returned to Paris, and Boutteville reëntered the service under his orders. A new life began for them both. M. de Ségur will soon, we hope, give us in another volume the history of the glorious campaigns of Condé's lieutenant, who was called Luxembourg inasmuch as he had received the Duchy of Luxembourg in dower on marrying Mlle. de Clermont after the conclusion of the peace.

Correspondence.

LOOTING THE BOERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to the London morning papers, "several most interesting additions have been made to the collection of war relics from South Africa, now on view at the museum of the Royal United Service Institution at Whitehall." Among other things mentioned are "Cronje's Bible," lent by Sir Howard Vincent, and a golden coin bearing the profile of Krüger, which also belonged to the "ex-Boer General."

At first sight this statement strikes the plain outsider as "rather queer." It is necessary, in a hurry, to readjust one's idea of the *point d'honneur*, to say nothing of homespun honesty, and remember that, at the present time in England, "old Cronje" and his "dirty Boers" are esteemed "no better than niggers, anyway," which of course brings their personal property under the category of legitimate loot. We are all agreed, I suppose, that the nigger (name generic) can claim no right to any earthly possession outside his own skin—and precious lucky if he escapes with that.

Faithfully yours, M. Mather.

Brighton, England, May 1, 1900.

ECLIPSE OBSERVATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the approaching solar eclipse on May 28, will you permit me to call the attention of your readers to an interesting fact which may have escaped their notice? If one closely observes the light and shade upon the ground beneath a tree in full leaf, he will see that the light is composed of innumerable round discs which melt into one another and then come out clear and distinct as the wind moves the leaves. These are images of the sun upon the ground, the foliage of the tree acting as a camera, and in an eclipse they will show the presence of the shadow upon the sun's surface by losing the circular form. The progress of an eclipse can be followed in the simplest manner by watching the changes in these discs.

I might add that the reflection of the sun thrown by a round piece of glass shows the same phenomenon.

James Mascarene Hubbard.

Boston, May 10, 1900.

Notes.

'Some Ideals in the Education of Women,' by Caroline Hazard, President of Wellesley College, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co., together with 'The Art of Optimism as Taught by Robert Browning,' an address by President Hyde of Bowdoin College.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s announcements include Zola's 'Fruitfulness,' and 'Herbert Spencer's Life and Works,' by Hector Macpherson, who writes by authority.

Shortly forthcoming from the Macmillan Co. are 'The Reign of Law: A Story of the Kentucky Hemp Fields,' by James Lane Allen; 'A Friend of Cæsar,' an historical novel by William Stearns Davis; 'Voices in the Night,' by Mrs. Flora Annie Steel; 'The Education of the Young in the Republic of Plato,' in Bernard Bosanquet's translation; 'The Biblical Theology of the New Testament,' by Prof. E. P. Gould; and 'Acetylene,' with profuse illustrations.

The medical publications of Cassell & Co., hitherto marketed in this country with American imprints, will hereafter bear their own.

A Life of Gen. Isaac Ingalls Stevens of the civil war, by his son, Gen. Hazard Stevens, will be published this month by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

For all it is a trade list, the 'First Editions of One Hundred Famous Books, from Homer to Tennyson,' issued by J. Pearson & Co., No. 5 Pall Mall Place, London, has first its bibliographical interest. But, besides, it is very prettily printed, and is illustrated with a number of facsimile and other illustrations, *e. g.*, from the Venice Euripides of 1503, the Terence of 1470-72, the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' of 1499, Fox's 'Book of Martyrs' (1559), Lafontaine's 'Fables Choisies' (1688), 'Robinson Crusoe' (1719), 'Vicar of Wakefield' (1766), De Lolme's 'Constitution of England' (1775), etc.

Boswell's Johnson makes a brave showing in the three-volume issue just added by Macmillan Company to their "Library of English Classics," than which few series combine fine appearance with cheapness of price so signally. The reprint is of Mr. Mowbray Morris's edition for the Macmillan's Globe series in 1893, which in turn followed the fourth edition (Malone's second), of 1804. The index fills fifty pages, and the letter-press is a delight to the eye.

The "Cambridge Edition" of Sir Walter Scott's Complete Poetical Works just added to their series by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., has been cared for by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. Chronology has been regarded in the arrangement, and superfluity avoided in editing the notes.

'The Mutiny on Board H. M. S. *Bounty*,' by Lieut. William Bligh, comes up for reprint more than a century after the occurrence described (M. F. Mansfield). Contemporaneous with the French Revolution of 1789, the mutiny has been as persistently kept in mind by English peoples, owing to the discovery of the mutineers who began life anew on Pitcairn's Island, in 1806. Any man past middle life may remember the *Bounty*, Caspar Hauser, and the excavations at Pompeii as staple topics for the "miscellany" column in periodicals, in an age less full of wonders and bustle than the present.

A second edition of Miss Sichel's 'Household of the Lafayettes' bears now the imprint of Macmillan instead of A. Constable & Co. We judge that none of the errors we pointed out in the historical portion has been corrected, since so obvious a one as "Barnavés" (for Barnave's) on p. 93 still stands. Opportunity has also been neglected greatly to improve the index. Here Barnave is again an example. We are referred to p. "85" instead of 83, and the mention of him on p. 93 is disregarded.

It is a sign of the increase in our own country and in England of serious study of the 'Divine Comedy' that such a work as Mr. Edmund Gardner's 'Dante's Ten Heavens' should come to a second edition within little more than a year of its first publication. "In this second edition, portions have been largely revised, but the work as a whole remains the same." We are glad to repeat the high opinion of the general worth and interest of the book which we expressed in noticing it on its first appearance. It is not a book to be read by itself, but as a comment with the poem in hand. Mr. Gardner's judgment and scholarship may both generally be trusted, and he has modified in his new edition some fanciful speculations in which he originally indulged. There still remain, however, a few passages which might be improved, as, for instance, the suggestion on p. 125 of "a mystically expressed prophecy of future discoveries and of men of science to come"; and on p. 267, where (following the majority, it is true, of commentators) Mr. Gardner speaks of the *pacifica oriaflamma* (Par. xxxi., 127) as "a title applied to Mary"—an interpretation which the context shows to be impossible. The least satisfactory portion of the book is the last chapter. It treats of Dante's Letters, including the Latin Eclogues, and has but slight connection with the main theme of the volume. Mr. Gardner has hardly given sufficient attention to the question of the authenticity of these writings. The external evidence concerning most of them is insufficient to establish their genuineness,

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and the internal evidence is doubtful. A more thorough study than has hitherto been undertaken of the peculiarities of their diction and vocabulary is required. For this the Concordance of the Prose Works of Dante, which our Dante Society has in hand, is needed, and we learn with pleasure that the work on the Concordance is approaching its conclusion.

A fresh book by Mr. Gardner, which may be also cordially commended, has just appeared in the series of "Temple Primers" (Dent-Macmillan), with the simple title of 'Dante.' It is an intelligent and scholarly manual, and forms an excellent introduction to the study of the Life and Works of the poet.

Another book of interest to the students of the "Paradiso" is the little volume published in the series of the Temple Classics (Dent-Macmillan), containing, in handy compactness, the original text of this portion of the 'Divine Comedy,' a prose version of it by the Rev. P. H. Wicksteed, and notes by the translator and by Mr. H. Oelsner. Excellent arguments are prefixed to each canto; the notes are brief, intelligent, and generally trustworthy. The translation follows the original closely, but the translator not infrequently misrepresents the character of Dante's diction by the choice of a word too forcible, or too unusual, or too specific, as a rendering for the simple term of the original. For instance, he translates *levai lo capo più erto*, "I sloped up my head"; *si che raffigurar m'è più latino*, "more articulately I retraced thee"; *volando per l'aere*, "soaring through the welkin"; *come mia dall' un, se si conosce, il cinque e il sei*, "as ray forth from the monad, if it be known, the pentad and the sexad"; *in bozzachione*, "into cankered tubers." This tendency to reinforce the words leads in some cases to practical mistranslation. Spite of such defects, the little book deserves cordial commendation.

The second greatest sculptor of modern times, the true master and almost the equal of Michelangelo, who was born seven years after Donato's death—such is the subject of Hope Rea's 'Donatello,' the latest issue of the excellent series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The book is well up to the average of the series, clear and sound and sensible, and the illustrations and text give a good notion of the rugged and powerful genius, not without suavity upon occasion, which produced such masterpieces as the "St. George," the "Zuccone," and the earliest and finest of modern equestrian statues, the "Gattamelata." With regard to this last, we must protest against Miss Rea's statement that the gait of the horse represented is an "amble." It has been abundantly demonstrated that, in this statue, as in the "Colleone" of Verrocchio, the *walk* is represented with a truth never again reached in art until our own day. It is a small fault to find with her volume, and the only one we have to point out.

William Archer's translation of Ibsen's "When We Dead Awaken" may now be enjoyed in handy shape and in tasteful dress in Herbert S. Stone & Co.'s "Green Tree Library"—a name emblematic of "the new movement in literature," we are told.

Another volume has appeared of the translation of the Babylonian Talmud which is being issued by the New Talmud Publishing Co. It embraces the 'Pirqe Abhoth,' known to all beginners in Talmudic studies, and fittingly adds to that the two less generally known deutero-tractates on the conduct of life, the 'Derekh Erets Rabba' and the 'Derekh Erets Zuta.' Of the Rabba this appears to be the first rendering into any European language, and of the Zuta it is the first into English. As there is no Gemara to the 'Pirqe Abhoth,' either in the Babylonian or the Palestinian Talmud, the Tosephta known as the 'Abhoth of Rabbi Nathan' has been translated in its place. The text used of this last is not the one revised on manuscript authority by Taussig, but the old form as printed in the great editions of the Talmud. The reasons which the editors give for following the unrevised text are hardly satisfactory. The compilers, "during the construction period of the Talmud," may not have "sifted every manuscript with the utmost care," and may easily have made a mistake when they "rejected them as valueless." The value of this volume consists in the translations, in part somewhat free, of the two Derekh Erets tracts and of the 'Abhoth of Rabbi Nathan.' These throw much light upon the original Abhoth. All, too, who are interested in folk-lore and comparative wisdom will find matter here. Is not the following tale told also of corn "on the stalk"? "One of them, who was less sensible, took the whole piece and bit off a piece. Said Rabbi Aqiba to him: 'Not so, my son. Put thy foot on it in the dish, and then you will succeed better.'"

In 'Shall We Drink Wine? A Physician's Study of the Alcohol Question' (Milwaukee: Owen & Weihbrecht Co.), Dr. John Madden aims to give the evidence from an entirely judicial standpoint, but his deductions are those of an extremist, and are not free from prejudice. The chapter on "Food Value" must be specified as very misleading, for the premise of Dr. Madden's argument is based on most uncertain evidence (that of the action of alcohol on respiration), and his conclusion denying a nutritive worth to the drug is in opposition to the opinions of a large majority of competent observers. In fact, the unique position of alcohol in therapeutics, as food and medicine, has been little affected by hostile reasonings, although the drug is now given in smaller amounts and with markedly altered ideas as to its mode of action. Dr. Madden's detailed account of alcohol as a stimulant is of the utmost interest, forcibly presenting the modern belief (revolutionary to the layman) that the well-known effects commonly termed "stimulating" are hardly so at all in any true sense, being due almost entirely to blunting of the feeling of fatigue, and "paralysis of the critical judgment." In stating further that alcohol in health is never desirable, that it is a proved poison when taken continuously in so-called moderate amounts, and probably toxic even in very small amounts, and that the habitual drinker "never reaches the highest possible plane" of his capabilities, the author hardly exceeds his rights of logical deduction from the testimony set forth. Other parts of this work—on the far-reaching derangements of tissue and function in alcoholism, and on the legal and sociological aspects of the question—are strikingly suggestive, although the technical reader finds phrases sometimes inaccurate and often too dogmatic for his taste. Sound and pleasingly broad-minded is the discussion as to the means of modifying drinking habits and restricting the sale of liquor through educational principles. On the whole, there is much potential influence for good in the book, and it deserves wide reading.

'An Epitome of Human Histology,' by Arthur W. Weysse, A.M., Ph.D. (Longmans), does not pretend to be more than a categorical list of facts, for the use of students already familiar with microscopic anatomy by actual observation. As such the book seems suited to its purpose; it is clear, accurate, and reasonably full.

Some years ago, Paul Fredericq of the University of Ghent published, principally in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, a series of articles on the teaching of history in the English, Scotch, and Continental universites. Of these articles translations subsequently appeared in the Johns Hopkins University Studies. Prof. Fredericq has now added a detailed description of the origin of the "cours pratiques," or historical seminaries, in Belgium, of their development from 1874 until 1898, and has published the whole in a volume entitled 'L'Enseignement Supérieur de l'Histoire; Notes et Impressions de Voyage' (Paris: Félix Alcan). For the student of historical method, the article will possess scarcely less value than the others, although it lacks something of their charm, because it can offer none of those characteristic notes of the intimate professional life of such distinguished men as Waitz, Sybel, Treitschke, Wattenbach, and Monod, which are to be found in the earlier articles, notably those on Berlin, and on the Paris École des Chartes and École des Hautes Études. All the way through, it is Prof. Fredericq's aim to explain to what extent the seminary method of teaching and investigation had been introduced up to the time of his visit. This he takes to be the test of sound progress. His volume of essays—or rather his diary of observation, for he does not claim for his articles the dignity of the completed essay—is a suggestive introduction to the newer developments in higher historical teaching.

The governmental language schools in Seoul, of which J. Bolljahn writes in the *Deutsche Zeitschrift für ausländisches Unterrichtswesen* for April, will doubtless help to hasten the progress of Korea by widening the various avenues of intercourse with the more civilized nations of the earth. The Japanese school was opened as early as 1891, and was followed by the English in 1894, the French and the Russian in 1896, and the Chinese in 1897. The contributor to the *Zeitschrift* is the head of the German school, whose arrival in the capital in 1898 is mentioned in the consular report incorporated in the last report of the Commissioner of Education. In each of these institutions about sixty or seventy Koreans between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five are instructed by native teachers in the respective languages, and in a few other branches, such as arithmetic and geography. After completing the prescribed course, most of them are employed as interpreters or appointed to Government positions of some kind. The English school furnishes in the main the customs officers, while the students who have learned French are preferred in the postal service; these two administrative branches being under the management of Englishmen and Frenchmen respectively. Some other institutions, such as a military

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academy, a medical school, and a teachers' seminary, have also been founded in recent years at the Korean capital, but their success seems still somewhat doubtful. On the other hand, the educational work carried on by the various missions is to be valued highly in a country where a general system of popular instruction is as yet not thought of.

The *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 42, reports that the learned world of Italy is considerably worried over the dangers that threaten the famous libraries of the country, especially the National Library at Florence, really the most important in the kingdom, because it is the only collection to which, by law, a copy of every publication in Italy must be sent. As is the case with all the state libraries, that of Florence has also lost one-fifth of its annual appropriation. A greater evil is the fact that it is housed in an unsafe building, and that this is packed from floor to ceiling. Recently it has shown signs of collapse. Should the threatened calamity occur, the loss would be incalculable, as the collection contains a great number of incunabula, about 18,000 manuscripts, and 23,000 volumes of musical publications. The city and the council of Florence have earnestly petitioned the Government to erect a new library building, but have met with a stubborn refusal. Recently Senator Pietro Brambillo, President of the Italian Bibliographical Society, addressed a public letter to the Ministry of Education on the matter. The appeal was reëchoed in the public journals; and in Parliament the Minister of Education, Manna, promised that something should be done.

The latest numbers of the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* have been particularly interesting. They contain articles on the Transvaal war, written, of course, from a neutral's point of view; on the historical novel in America, the modern press, the popular universities of Paris, and literary criticisms and reviews; besides the usual fiction, in complete stories and in instalments of longer novels. The *Revue Suisse* is a periodical to be recommended to Americans who desire an interesting, well-written magazine, wholly free from any objectionable features. It is published in Paris by Firmin-Didot & Cie.

Teheran and its neighborhood is the subject of the principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number three, in which are treated the physical features, climate, fauna, and people. The writer, A. F. Stahl, holds that the Parsees are the purest representatives of the original inhabitants. The European residents number between 150 and 200, and are mostly Government officials and connected with the telegraph. There is an excellent map on a large scale. An historical summary is also given of the different European relations with the little-known group of five islands lying near the northwest coast of New Guinea, variously known as Mapia, Bunai, St. David, and Freewill Islands. Their ownership has been disputed by Holland and Spain.

The foreign trade of China for 1899, according to a report published by order of the Inspector-General of Customs, showed an advance without precedent. The total trade was valued at $345,000,000, in round numbers—a rise of $69,000,000 on 1898, and more than double the figures for 1890. While the greatest relative increase is shown in the exports, the net value of the imports amounts to $42,000,000 more than the previous year. "The import of American and Japanese goods has shown the greatest development." Of the total tonnage of vessels engaged in this foreign trade, Great Britain contributed 59 per cent.; China, 24 per cent.; Japan, 7 per cent.; Germany, 5 per cent.; France, 2 per cent.; Sweden and Norway, 1 per cent.; Russia, 1 per cent.; and America, 1 per cent.

A new advocate for reform in Turkey has risen in Emin Arslan Effendi, the Consul-General in Brussels. Last year he sent to Abdul Hamid a detailed report of the sufferings of the peasants in certain of the richest provinces in the empire. He pointed out that, unable to bear the heavy burden of taxation and the arbitrary methods of the farmers of revenue, they were cutting down their trees, tearing up their vines, leaving their lands uncultivated, and even emigrating in vast numbers beyond the seas. America alone, he said, contained more than 100,000 Syrian emigrants, a third of whom were Mohammedans. "Never in the history of Islam has such a thing occurred." In this year's report he dwells upon the great numbers of high officials and their enormous salaries. There are in the army, for instance, forty-four marshals, and forty-six viziers with the rank of marshal, and there are eighty members of the Council of State—as many as in France and Germany put together. Mukhtar Pasha's salary is four times as large as Lord Cromer's, and the Grand Vizier receives twice as much as Lord Salisbury. But "as the majority of these high officials receive from the Treasury double and sometimes treble their salaries, the financial embarrassment of the empire is but natural."

—As interesting an article as any in *Harper's* for May is that on "Fifty Years of *Harper's Magazine*," by the anonymous editor. It is illustrated by portraits and a drawing by A. I. Keller. The fifty years have witnessed many changes; the times alter, and monthly magazines with them. Started, like so many other serial publications, as a tender to a publishing business, *Harper's* has developed a life of its own. Originally eclectic ("the cream of foreign periodical literature"), and with hardly any illustrations except a few fashion plates, it has come to live chiefly by and for American literature and pictorial art. The early success of the monthly as a distinctively literary enterprise—"the literature, be it remembered, being quite entirely English, and, while contemporaneous, having no special timeliness in an acutely journalistic sense—is notable, and reflects credit upon that generation of American readers." To-day, one great change is marked by the fact that, while formerly many magazine articles were made from books about to be published by the house, to-day the rule is reversed, and books are written to appear first serially in the magazine. This is, of course, the rule in the magazine world generally. Again, the personality of a writer counts for more than it did a quarter of a century since, the public apparently not so much caring for intrinsic merit (this is our own inference) as being curious to know what So-and-so, heard about everywhere, has to say. Articles are replaced by short stories, and to these the editor attaches an importance which our descendants will perhaps find unintelligible. Fiction has come to be looked upon as having a sort of primacy, with pictorial art as its handmaid. Of criticism there is at present hardly any—there never was much; and another point which the editor might have made is, that contentious subjects are always avoided, and consequently no one's feelings are hurt. This is, we believe, the rule in all modern magazines, so that, in this respect, the American magazine is at the opposite pole from the American newspaper, though in other respects "the journalistic motive dominates." "From a Winter Note-book," illustrated from photographs, by Rudyard Kipling, is a description of a New England (Brattleboro) winter, as seen and felt by a none too pleased observer. It is full of nice observation, but there is none of that love of New England which plays such a large part in the description of native writers. Without scope for violence, Kipling is not thoroughly himself, and his description of a blizzard is most characteristic. He connects the "New England conscience" with the New England winter, thinking that it is, at any rate in part, produced by too much cogitation, for which the long winter months afford time. Hate breeds, it seems, in the winter, as well as religion, and our observer fancies that the spring must be the New England season for murders and revivals. He is also evidently persuaded that tramps who beg in Vermont after dark are apt to be shot down. Like his description, his inferences are "temperamental." But to make the thing described, or painted, or told a little disagreeable is all in the taste of the day. Mr. Howells's poem, "Father and Mother: A Mystery," will repay reading—but not for the quality of its blank verse.

—"Art in Modern Bridges" is the subject of an article in the *Century* by Montgomery Schuyler; the illustrations by Harry Fenn. It is all the more readable and intelligible for the lay reader in that it is written by a lay writer. The authorities tell us, says Mr. Schuyler, that it was only in 1852 that "the first successful attempt was made to analyze correctly the stresses in a framed structure, and to proportion the members to resist the given external force." The world, accustomed for centuries to the arch, is only just beginning to get accustomed to the truss. The bridges which are acknowledged to be masterpieces of the world's architecture are in Europe, and belong to the pre-truss era. Hence all our sentiment, all our poetry, connected with ideas of bridges is sentiment and poetry of the arch. The United States, however, is a truss country, and we are of the engineering age, and, for the future, sentiment and poetry must cluster about engineering works, if the engineers will permit. Will they give the opportunity? In other words, is beauty to be recognized by them as an essential requirement of bridge-building, or are we and our descendants to be doomed to see the New World defaced by bridges which are monstrosities? It seems that, some twenty years ago, a German Commissioner appointed by his Government to inquire into the railway system of the United States reported that, "in America, public works are executed without reference to art." To judge by Mr. Schuyler's showing, we have made some progress since then; but he insists that we not only need specific protection against certain threatened erections, but a new

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race of engineers who shall be the architects of a new and glorious and till recently undreamed-of art. A remarkable paper is contributed by Dr. Charles F. Thwing, President of Western Reserve University, called "Significant Ignorance about the Bible, as shown among College Students of Both Sexes." Wishing to get some idea of the extent to which familiarity with the contents of the Bible actually exists, he set for members of the freshman class an examination paper composed of extracts from Tennyson, each of which contained a Biblical allusion. The young men examined were thirty-four in number, about twenty years of age, born, with one exception, in this country, sons of lawyers, preachers, teachers, merchants, and farmers, coming from a part of the country supposed to be above the average in intelligence. The allusions were not at all recondite. The result showed that out of a possible 748 correct answers, only 328 were given; that of the thirty-four examinees nine did not know what the "crown of thorns" meant; that to eleven "as manna on my wilderness" was inexplicable; that to nineteen "Ruth among the fields of corn" conveyed no idea; while to eleven "marked me even as Cain" meant nothing, and for twenty-five "the Church on Peter's rock" was too hard. These are fair average illustrations of the exposure. Of course, the answers actually given were often very amusing. The girls did not do much better than the boys.

"Et vos creamini doctores—
O tempora, o mores!"

—*Scribner's* has an article on "Rapid Transit in New York," by William Barclay Parsons, Chief Engineer of the Commission, with illustrations drawn by Jules Guérin from the official plans. It gives the clearest idea of this great scheme of local underground transportation that we have met with; and the reader will find the plans in many respects novel. The design is of a structure "quite unlike the ordinarily accepted picture of an underground railroad." There will be applied to underground construction "the now familiar principles involved in the erection of the modern sky-scraper," in which the weight of the floors and the buildings themselves are borne by the steel frames, and the outer walls are nothing but "thin skins." The street is first torn up and excavated to an average depth of twenty feet. Then there will be spread upon the bottom of this ditch, or lower street, a solid floor of concrete, and on this floor will be erected at short intervals (about five feet) transversely to the street, frames of steel beams securely riveted together. These frames, which the engineer compares to the ribs of the human body, are to withstand the load above and the side pressure, "not by mere weight or brute force, but by scientifically utilizing the valuable properties of steel to resist bending and tension." The railway will be as near to the surface of the street as the roof will permit, and the subway will not be even suggestive of a tunnel; what it will look like is what it will be—a covered way. Sunlight will have full play in the stations, and as there are to be no smoke-producing motors, there will be no smoke or cinders. Of J. M. Barrie's continued novel, "Tommy and Grizel," it is almost impossible to speak with confidence in advance of its conclusion. If we were to hazard a criticism, it would be that the author overdoes his introspectiveness. The leading article in the number is "Some Picturesque Sides of the Paris Exposition: An Artist's Impressions," by E. C. Peixotto, with the writer's own drawings. All expositions are more or less alike; but this one has a feature of its own—of which (we speak from a vivid recollection of the impression made by the buildings even as they stood last year) Mr. Peixotto gives a faithful as well as an agreeable description—a bit of old Paris, reconstructed for the occasion. The Paris of the fifteenth century, for the time, lives again, with its old houses, its steep roofs, its towers, its pinnacles, its vanes, its shops, its narrow streets, its wonderful picturesqueness. It is inhabited, too, by French of the fifteenth century. If not worth a Mass, it certainly is worth going a good way to see.

—If Prof. Hugo Münsterberg's article on "School Reform" in the *Atlantic* cannot be answered effectively, something is radically wrong with our whole scheme of education. The indictment charges substantially that three of our years spent in education are wasted; that in Germany "the level of American high-school graduation" is attained at fifteen years, and the level of American average college graduation at eighteen or nineteen; that "time, which, with the teachers of to-day, is hardly efficient to bring a man through a good high school," would, with proper teaching and teachers, "be enough to give him a college education." The standard of comparison is that of the writer's own education, at Dantzig, where he was "a fair average" scholar. At fifteen, he and all his classmates were prepared to pass the entrance examination for Harvard. The explanation of this forwardness, that the German boy is overworked, the Professor emphatically repudiates, maintaining that in his own ten years of gymnasium life he had had plenty of time for exercise, for music, for "instructive games," private theatricals, excursions into the country, dancing lessons, and horse-back riding. Per contra, in *Science* of May 4, Prof. Bowditch's presidential address before the Congress of American Physicians and Surgeons on May 2 alleges that in some parts of Germany "schoolboys from eight to fifteen years have found their vital energy so far exhausted by the school work required of them that they have lost all inclination for vigorous athletic amusements." But Prof. Münsterberg not only makes the formidable charge of a waste of three whole years by the way; he attacks the elective features of our higher education, and insists that, according to German standards, specialization and variation is out of place before reaching a level corresponding with college graduation here. The moral of the article seems to be that if we would have good teaching, we must have an altogether higher standard for teachers—no one ought to be allowed to teach in a grammar school who has not worked after his college course at least two years in a graduate school; no one in a college "who has not taken his doctor's degree in one of the best universities." As a matter of fact, "only 2 per cent. of the school-teachers possess any degree whatever." We believe some parents maintain that our youth are so intrinsically superior to the German youth that they do not need so much education; but what we are most curious to know is what they think about it at Harvard.

—The first volume of the 'Scientific Results of the Norwegian North Polar Expedition,' edited by Nansen, has been issued by Longmans, Green & Co. It is a generous quarto of some 400 pages and 44 plates, besides numerous figures in the text. This series is intended to contain a complete account of the scientific results of the voyage of the *Fram*, and for years to come will probably remain the standard work on the North Polar basin. Each memoir will be complete in itself and separately paged, as well as furnished with a serial number by which it may be conveniently referred to. The whole work is expected to comprise five or six quarto volumes in the English language, which it is hoped may appear within about two years, closing with a complete summary of the scientific results of the expedition. The present volume contains five memoirs, preceded by the editor's introduction. The first paper is a description, with sectional diagrams, by Colin Archer, of the *Fram*. It is stated that a careful inspection of the vessel showed that she had sustained no injury whatever from the ice pressures to which she had been subjected, with the exception of one of the metallic fenders to the rudder which had been somewhat distorted. Dr. J. F. Pompeckj discusses very fully a collection of invertebrate fossils obtained by Nansen near Jackson's winter quarters at Cape Flora. These came from a clayey stratum below the basaltic layers of the cape, and prove to be of upper Jurassic age. A few plant remains from depressions in the upper surface of the basalt are discussed by Nathorst, who finds them also to be probably uppermost Jurassic, from which it is inferred that the lavas also are of Mesozoic age, though they had been suspected to be Tertiary. Robert Collett and Nansen treat of the birds observed, which, excluding those belonging to the Siberian coast, comprise only one land bird, the snowbird (*Plectrophenax nivalis*), the rest being gulls, auks, and other sea fowl, of which thirty species were taken or observed, the rarest and most interesting being the rosy gull.

—The last article is by G. O. Sars, who describes the crustacea, the majority of which are copepods, minute shrimps such as form the food of the whale and most of the sea fowl. The westerly drift from the Siberian coast carries quantities of minute algæ and diatoms, upon which the crustacea feed. They belong to the superficial stratum, moved by the prevalent winds. Prof. Sars, however, believes that the fauna of the deeper water is derived from the Atlantic inflow below the surface. Very few marine animals except crustacea were obtained; a tiny tomcod (*Gadus saida*) was the only fish observed in the high north. Among the crustacea it was a surprise to find, associated with strictly polar forms, several heretofore known only from the tropics, the Mediterranean, and even the Caspian Sea. The magnificent series of plates drawn by the author of this monograph will form a lasting testimony to the artistic as well as the scientific genius of the learned Norwegian naturalist.

—No other type of Greek literature so transformed itself as did comedy, and no other remained more truly Attic. From the exuberance and indecency of Aristophanes's political satires it is a far cry to the senti-

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mentalism, the refinement, the character-study, and romance of Menander's comedy of manners. What the change was, and how it came about, we discern dimly from fragments; and even the fragments that we possess of the Middle and New Comedy are misleading, since they reach us in the quotations of an author who, writing as he was on the art of dining and all the accompaniments of a dinner, had an eye only for such passages as would illustrate his theme. So it is that Athenæus leaves one with the impression that the kitchen and the fish-market have become the setting and furnish the chief interest of Athenian comedy. Cooks and parasites were certainly in curious prominence on the later comic stage; but it is from the plays of Plautus and Terence, which in several cases were direct adaptations from Greek originals, that we realize how much we have lost, and how little Athenæus gave us, for all his copiousness. The fragments of Greek comedy are not easily accessible to any but the scholar who has the use of a good library, since the German editions of Kock and Meineke are too unwieldy and expensive for the book-shelves of the ordinary student. Mr. Pickard-Cambridge has therefore done a real service to classical students in publishing (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde) his 'Select Fragments of the Greek Comic Poets,' a little book of some 200 pages, with short notes and biographical notices. He gives in this brief compass the most important fragments of the comic poets from Susarion to Menander, and his book will doubtless be welcome to many students who might otherwise limit their acquaintance with Greek comedy to Aristophanes. The notes, as might be expected from a Fellow of Balliol, are scholarly and sufficient, and the selection is well made.

—In the *Journal de St. Pétersbourg* for April 12 ("Chronique Parisienne"), Mr. Léo Claretie expresses much concern at the sort of lecturers drawn to Harvard by the Cercle Français. They are, so far, he says, orators with a very positive religious and political complexion, who represent at home the Catholic and reactionary party, and must convey the impression that France is stiffly ultramontane. The mischief is twofold: Americans are deceived as to the French spirit, and (there is something in this) the lecturers are deceived by their own bias, and report very untruthfully upon the state of Catholicism in this country. In other words, says M. Claretie, the representatives of a French minority are invited to cross the ocean, only to exaggerate on their return the importance of an American minority. Hence, a mutual revulsion of the real majority in both countries, instead of a *rapprochement*. What M. Claretie takes no account of is that the members of the Cercle Français and of similar bodies in other colleges can judge for themselves, and that their knowledge of France is by no means confined to the lecturers who, for one or another intellectual quality, are solicited to address them. To *see* famous men, of whatever shade of opinion or party affiliation, is always a corrective of reputation, and of impressions derived from reading alone. Nor can the lecturers fail to acquire new and juster ideas concerning the moral and material character of our civilization.

MASPERO'S PASSING OF THE EMPIRES.

The Passing of the Empires, 850 B. C. to 330 B. C. By G. Maspero. Edited by A. H. Sayce. Translated by M. L. McClure. With maps, three colored plates, and numerous illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1900.

This is the final volume of Maspero's monumental 'History of the Ancient Peoples of the Classic East.' The first volume, entitled, in the English translation, 'The Dawn of Civilization,' published in 1894, covered the period from the commencement of our knowledge of man in Egypt and Chaldea down to the first centuries of the second millennium B. C. The second volume, 'The Struggle of the Nations,' published in 1897, carried down the history of Egypt, Syria, and Assyria a little more than a thousand years, to the commencement of the ninth century B. C. The present volume deals with the next five hundred years, to the conquest of Asia by Alexander. Each of these three volumes is published separately, and indexed separately, but the three constitute a consecutive history of the rise of civilization in hither Asia and its development until Asia gave place to Europe. The two main centres from which this civilization was derived were Egypt and Chaldea, and until the close of the period treated in the present volume they were the most potent elements in the advance and the spread of civilization. From time to time, in the early periods, Elam conquers Babylonia, but it is Babylonia which is the real and constant factor in the advance of civilization, and not Elam. Similarly Egypt succumbs, from time to time, to outside forces, only finally to incorporate these forces into its own life, and reach, with its influence, a still wider sphere. Out of Chaldea grows Assyria, out of Egypt grows Ethiopia. Assyria and Ethiopia fall, but Chaldea and Egypt remain. They are the sources from which the force of civilization emanates.

This volume opens with the revival of Assyrian power under Ashur-nazir-pal (885-860), and Shalmaneser III. (commonly known as Shalmaneser II.), and the struggles for Syria. New races come into the field of vision. Armenia plays an important part, and for a brief period the kingdom of Urartu is in force superior to Assyria. Later, Media rises; we meet the Cimmerians and Scythians, and the kingdom of Lydia is developed in Asia Minor. Then Assyria falls before the Medes, and the Medes and the Lydians in their turn go down before the Persians, and the conquerors themselves succumb to the influence of Babylon. In this volume we have the record of a struggle of 500 years, which is bringing the nations of hither Asia, including Egypt, constantly closer together, and destroying their separate national life, until at last they are united in one great power, the Persian. But amalgamation is as yet by no means complete. Nominally all are subject to the one great central power. Practically that power is weak and its provinces are semi-independent and disintegrated. The world is worn out with its struggles, the nations of hither Asia are ready to submit to any one who demands their submission. At this juncture Alexander steps in, overthrows, with apparently insignificant means, the whole colossal fabric of the Persian power, and establishes in its place an empire still vaster. Here the book closes.

It is impossible to criticise in any detail a work of such colossal proportions and so comprehensive in its material. This volume contains over eight hundred large, demi-quarto pages, many of which are crowded with footnotes in fine print, giving references to the literature of the subject, and occasionally arguments in support of the positions advanced. The research and learning which have gone to the making of the whole work are beyond praise. Probably no other living man could have given us such a synchronous survey of the field of civilization. But the book is, after all, rather a collection of materials than a finished history. This volume is a work of reference, to which one may go for any given period between 850 and 330 B.C., sure that he will find valuable material. Read as a whole, it is confusing. One must skip from place to place, from Assyria to Egypt, and from Egypt to Armenia, from Armenia to Elam, and from Elam to Lydia. Probably it is the fault of the events themselves that it seems to the reader as though the same thing were being told over and over again. The same cities and countries revolt and are subdued in the same manner repeatedly. It is only by comparing the beginning, middle, and end of the book with one another that one can realize that there is progress and development.

It is interesting to compare our present knowledge of the ancient civilized world of Asia, as shown in Prof. Maspero's great work, with the ideas of scholars of sixty years ago. The great discoveries in archæology have all been made within the last sixty years—that is to say, it is only during that period, and for the most part during the latter half of that period, that we have been able to use, for historical purposes, the records of the past as contained in the inscriptions. From Egypt and Babylonia we now have a vast mass of inscriptions which enable us to restore the very details of the life of the people from an extremely early period. For purposes of political history the inscriptions of Assyria and Persia are more valuable, though still leaving something to be desired. A few inscriptions have been found in northern Syria, Armenia, and elsewhere, but our knowledge of the history of these regions depends, for the most part, on the statements made in Assyrian inscriptions. For Media we are still dependent principally, and for Lydia practically altogether, on the accounts of the Greek historians. This difference in the sources makes itself felt in the history. As one reads Maspero's account of the rise and fall of the Lydian empire, and its relations to Assyria, it is evident that facts are mixed with legends. We could wish that Maspero had himself made this plainer. Owing to the lack of original sources, the parts of this volume which deal with Media and Lydia are greatly inferior to the rest.

For the history of Syria, and for side-lights on the course of history in general, good use is made of the Old Testament, which is treated precisely like other documents. On the whole, Maspero's use of the Hebrew Scriptures is sound—if anything, he is a little hypercritical; thus, for example, in the famous story of the invasion of Sennacherib, he does not, in our judgment, give the Hebrew record its true value. As a sign of progress, it is worthy of note that the Literature Committee of the S. P. C. K., by whom this work is given to the English pub-

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lic, has not deemed it necessary to make any changes because of the supposed theological squeamishness of English readers. The text has been presented without change, except by the author's written permission, and the committee merely publishes a note to say "that they do not take upon themselves to pronounce on the conclusions in the field of Biblical criticism deduced by the author from the events and documents discussed." Even in the case of citations from the Bible, where Maspero has used an amended text, his translation is retained, the revised version being given in a footnote for reference.

The translation, by Miss McClure, seems to be thoroughly well done, so far as one can judge from a reading of the English only. The illustrations, which are very numerous—four hundred, or over—are admirably executed, and drawn from the most varied sources. The maps are not such as one would expect in a volume of this monumental character. The chapters are of inordinate length, averaging over one hundred pages each. The book could have been made easier to use by reducing the size of the chapters and providing them with fuller headings. The index, also, is slight for such a volume. Maspero's references to literature in the footnotes are so numerous and so full that it seems a pity that the volume should not have been provided with something in the nature of a bibliographical index. There is a brief preface by Prof. Sayce, in which he makes reference to the archæological work now going on in various places, and especially to the valuable discoveries of De Morgan in Egypt and Elam. We have noticed also a few brief footnotes by him in the body of the volume.

Of errors we have observed very few. On page 31, "The country of the Sukhi and the Lagi" is said to lie to the *east* instead of to the *west* of Assyria, and in the following line *northwest* is substituted for *northeast*. On page 699, in a footnote, one of the Sidon sarcophagi is described as being in the "Museum of St. Irene." It is a great many years since the few antiquities once stored in the old church of St. Irene in Constantinople were removed to other quarters, and a real museum, open to the public, created in Chinili Kiosk. This particular sarcophagus was never at St. Irene, but has, since it was unpacked, stood in the new museum building erected by the present Sultan in 1890.

We commend the volume as one which ought to be in the library of every Oriental scholar who can afford it. It is a work of reference, invaluable in the present state of our knowledge.

KEANE'S EVOLUTION OF MAN.

Man Past and Present. By A. H. Keane. F.R.G.S., etc., etc. [The Cambridge Geographical Series.] Macmillan. 1899.

Man, according to our author, is specifically one, though not necessarily sprung from a single pair. In all probability he originated in the Indo-Malaysian intertropical lands and in what are geologically known as lower pliocene times. Even at this early period, he had so far progressed as to be able to fashion rude stone implements; and if we may judge from the remains found by Dr. Dubois in east Java, he was about five feet six inches high, and had a cranial capacity of about 1,000 c.c., "which is midway between the gorilla and a modern European, and is not greatly inferior to that often occurring among the lowest present races (Australians, Bushmen, etc.)"; to which we may add the ancient Peruvians.

From this Indo-Malaysian region, which at that time formed part of the Asiatic mainland, he made his way over the earth, moving in rude hordes, "like other migrating faunas, along the lines of least resistance, advancing or receding, and acting generally on blind impulse rather than of any set purpose." These wanderings took place in what is archæologically termed the palæolithic or Old Stone Age, prior to the development of all cultural appliances beyond the ability to wield a club or chip primitive stone implements, and when man himself was but little if any differentiated. Hence it is that we find everywhere, at this time, such a sameness in the works of man and in man himself as to preclude the possibility of classification. Changes, however, were always going on during this immensely long period; and while in some regions they were so slight as to be scarcely perceptible, yet in others "they were at a rate of progress in the arts that, in some respects, was never afterwards surpassed." With this advancement in culture that of the physical man, so (p. 10) we are told, "must have gone on hand in hand, and hence it seems a reasonable assumption to suppose that even before the close of the palæolithic times all the great divisions of mankind"—Negro, Mongol, American, and Caucasian—"had already been specialized in their several geographical areas."

This, in brief, is our author's theory as to the way in which the world was peopled. It is supposed to have been brought about by a process of natural selection (p. 13), and although its accomplishment necessitates, among a number of other doubtful postulates, the resurrection (pp. 6, 353, 450) of several submerged continents or pathways, yet, on the other hand, it furnishes a good working hypothesis as to the origin and dispersal of early man over the globe, and to this extent it is accepted. For the same reason and in like degree, we are ready to admit what is told of the subsequent evolution of the different varieties of the race in their respective zones of specialization. Much of this occurred in the post-pleistocene epoch, or its archæological equivalent the New Stone Age, and was brought about by the fresh settlements and readjustments of population that were always going on. Continual infiltrations, too, and intermixtures of neighboring peoples must have had more or less effect, so that we can well understand how it was that these agencies, "acting through five-score millenniums," and reinforced, as they were, by the powerful influences that came with the differing environments, must have resulted in the production of a number of specialized human varieties that diverged widely from the original types.

Following these two periods of development, we have, successively, the ages of bronze and iron. To these our author adds a third—the age of copper—which preceded the others, and, possibly, "was not of long duration, except of course in the New World." He even tells us (p. 19) that "we know for certain" *(sic)* that such an age was developed in the region of the Great Lakes. This, we need not say, will be news to most American archæologists, though, after all, it is, perhaps, a matter of definition rather than of fact. We may, however, remark in passing that if our author's contention on this point be allowed, we shall also have to admit the existence, east of the Mississippi and at about this same time, of a shell age; for there can be no doubt that the number of uses to which this material was put was greater than was that of copper, that it was generally employed over a wider extent of country, and that, compared with the implements and ornaments of stone, the percentage of articles made from it was much larger. However, be this as it may, it is not a point on which we care to insist. Suffice it to say that, divide this period, as we may, into two or three "ages," the march of improvement went on through all of them, and that with the incoming iron age there was such a development "of physical and mental characters, usages, religion, speech, cultural features, history, and geographical range," as to furnish bases or "elements" for classifying the different varieties to which humanity had given birth. In a word, we are at the beginning of the historic epoch.

Into this period, except in a very general way, we do not propose to follow our author, for the reason that we do not believe that it is possible, in the present state of our knowledge, to frame a satisfactory system of classification. Take, for example, the plan here outlined, and while it is probable that (p. 37) "whenever two or more groups are found agreeing in all, or at least the *more essential*" elements, they are branches of the same stock, yet it might lead to serious error if we were to assume that this is invariably the case. Indeed, so far is this from being true that there are many ethnologists who contend that all such conclusions are premature, and that they must remain so, until there is some agreement as to which elements are essential, or whether, and this is far more likely, there are any that can be so considered.

That there is an obvious physical difference between a blonde Caucasian (Teuton our author calls this stock) from the north of Europe and a typical negro, provided one can be found, is evident; and if all mankind were divided into whites and blacks and the whites were all Caucasians and the blacks all negroes, it would be easy to effect a classification upon the basis of color. But suppose that, instead of a blonde Caucasian, with his monotheistic ideas and high culture, we take his black (pp. 441 *et seq.*) fetish-worshipping racial brother from Gallaland, Africa, and how are we to differentiate him from those of his negro neighbors, who are also black, who worship fetishes, eat their fellow-men, and resemble him far more closely than he does his kinsman from the north of Europe? Evidently, here is a case in which color and culture fail to furnish satisfactory bases for classification; and without going into details, it is probably safe to say that shape of skull, hair, language, and any and all of the other so-called elements would prove equally disappointing if subjected to a similar test. What we want and what is necessary to a system of classification is the possession, in common, of some attribute or characteristic that will enable us to say of any given group of people that it belongs to this or that grand division, and that it cannot belong to

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any of the others. When this is found, and we meet with two or three more groups in possession of this particular characteristic, it will be time enough to assert that they are branches of one stock. But until then, the attempt to classify mankind in groups, even within the broad limits laid down by our author, must inevitably fail, for, as Powell has truly said, "there is no science of ethnology."

Aside from the want of success that has hitherto attended our efforts in this direction, there is another and a very serious obstacle in our way arising from the fact that so many, we had almost said all, of the fundamental problems of ethnology are still open to debate. The theory, for instance, held by our author, that "man is specifically one" is so far from being of general acceptance that there is a large and influential school of investigators who deny it altogether, and insist that what are here termed varieties are true species, and that each one had a separate origin. So, too, in regard to the grand divisions of mankind, which are here limited to four, though according to other biologists they number all the way from two to sixty and perhaps more. Even our author finds it convenient to supplement his estimate of four by the addition of a number of subtypes, and these might have been indefinitely increased with advantage to his system of classification. Without stopping to inquire into the truth or falsity of any of these theories, we may be permitted to observe that they lie at the root of the racial question, and that within their respective limits they are antagonistic. As none has been shown to be true, it follows that the conclusions which each carries in its train are no stronger than are the propositions upon which they depend, and hence it would seem as if the search for tests of racial affinity or diversity must, often, resolve itself into a mere study of probabilities. Indeed, this is practically admitted (p. 444) so far as the Caucasian peoples are concerned; and that it is equally true of the others is a fair inference from the frequency with which the terms "possible," "probable," and other similar qualifications occur in the course of the investigation into their respective attributes and acquirements. This is unfortunate, but it is believed to be unavoidable, and, in calling attention to it, our object has not been to reflect upon the manner in which the subject is treated, but to emphasize the fact that all attempts, hitherto made, to classify the race in groups have failed.

Being thus forewarned, it is possible, in dealing with this work, to do full justice to the research displayed in the collection of material, and to the skill the author has shown in developing his lines of argument. With many of his conclusions, even when his premises are a trifle shaky, we are in full sympathy; and though he is, at times, too complacent in assuming that certain problems have been elsewhere settled, yet in the main his obvious purpose is to deal fairly with his readers. That we have not always been able to accept him at his own valuation is, we think, due to the inherent uncertainties of the case, and possibly also, in part, to our inability "to see below the surface"; some such gift, we are told (p. 448), being necessary to enable us "to sweep into one category Europeans, North Africans, West Asiatics, Iranians, and others all the way to the Indo-Gangetic plains and uplands," and far beyond, "whose complexity presents every shade of color, except yellow, from white to the deepest brown or even black."

GASQUET'S EVE OF THE REFORMATION.

The Eve of the Reformation: Studies in the Religious Life and Thought of the English People in the Period preceding the Rejection of the Roman Jurisdiction by Henry VIII. By Francis Aidan Gasquet, D.D., O.S.B. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Putnams. 1899.

Under the above title Dr. Gasquet, known to scholars chiefly by his book on Henry VIII. and the English monasteries, has grouped a series of "studies" upon various aspects of the English Reformation. "Studies" is an attractive but misleading word. One studies in order to learn something; but that has not been the purpose of Dr. Gasquet's investigations. He knew beforehand all that was necessary for him to know, and he has studied only to find illustrations of a thesis with which he starts. He is avowedly a disciple of Janssen, whom he quotes at length and whom he describes as "the historian of Germany" for his period. His method, which is the same as that of his master, was bound to be applied sooner or later to this phase of the Reformation, as it has been already with so much effect in other directions. It consists in laying down certain propositions and then supporting them by contemporary evidence, carefully selecting such as bear in the desired direction, and ignoring all that might seem to weaken the case. An essential feature is also the apparently frank admission of certain errors and weaknesses on one's own side, and of a certain proportion of good intention on the side of the opponent. Such a method aims to disarm criticism at the outset. It would produce its effects by an appeal to the sense of fairness and of logical sequence.

In this general description may fairly be included the volume before us. Its thesis is the same as that which underlies the work of Janssen, Pastor, and the rest—that the period immediately preceding the Reformation was, on the whole, one of the most progressive, enlightened, happy, pious, virtuous, prosperous, and altogether satisfactory periods in human history. Some little blemishes there were—priests were occasionally wicked or overbearing; not all ideas were suffered to have their full and immediate expansion; certain restrictions upon human liberty are to be noted—but these were only such limitations as are inevitable in human society, and were rapidly becoming less obtrusive under the gentle sway of the Church, which had always striven against them. The Reformation was the work of men as fanatical as they were wicked, and only served to set back by several generations the advance of humanity in true enlightenment and in the solid bases of a virtuous social life. It was at once a crime and a blunder.

Applying this thesis to England, Dr. Gasquet assumes that the Reformation there had practically no roots in English soil. To be sure, there had been a little disturbance by certain wicked persons in the previous century under the leadership of one Wiclif, but with the death of Cobham in 1417 this annoyance had ceased. Lollardry had disappeared, and the English people had returned to its wonted state of satisfaction with the Roman administration. All of a sudden there came to disturb this idyllic condition two quite external causes, one the desire of King Henry to get rid of his wife, and the other the subtle, corrupting influence of German Lutheranism. These were sufficient, if we could believe Dr. Gasquet, to account for the complete and permanent rejection of the papal system by the English people, and by every branch that has gone forth from the English stock!

We have no intention to analyze the arguments of this book. One does not need books to tell us that in any period of controversy a vast array of evidence can be produced on any side. The question is only as to the use to be made of this evidence, and its relevancy to the real questions at issue. In each of his twelve chapters Dr. Gasquet presents a new aspect of his general proposition. Beginning with the Revival of Learning, he devotes some space to proving that the phrase "New Learning" meant in England not the revival of classical study, but the imported theology of the Germans. The real revival of learning was in full swing under the fostering care of the Church and of churchmen, who were in full sympathy with it so long as it kept itself within the bounds of what we have learned from Dr. Gasquet's German colleagues to call the "true," or "Christian," as distinguished from the "false," or "heathen," Renaissance—in other words, so long as learning was not applied to criticism of the institutions they are bound to defend. As to the conflict of jurisdictions, moderate men on both sides were aiming at a reasonable adjustment between jurisdiction over things temporal and things spiritual. Had it not been for political reasons and the influence of foreign sectaries, England might have escaped the Reformation and got on as beautifully with Rome as did Spain, Naples, and France.

Against the Roman system Dr. Gasquet finds no traces of any real hostility in the period in question. What would he say of the attitude of Saxony under Frederick the Wise up to the moment when Luther revealed to the German people the essential fallacy of the whole papal position? The earlier "disagreements and quarrels" were only misunderstandings as to the limits of spiritual and temporal dominion, but did not concern the essential fact that England fully acknowledged the spiritual headship of the See of Rome. A weapon has been put into Dr. Gasquet's hand here by the puerile efforts of Anglican writers to show that England was never really under the papal control. His error and theirs is in fancying that there was, down to the Reformation, any essential difference either way between England and the Continental nations in this respect.

Hostility against the clergy as such we are told, on the unquestioned authority of Thomas More, was, in England, a thing absolutely new—so new that we may date it as almost precisely contemporary with the incoming of the Lutheran views. Here, as in the preceding chapter, we are referred to a purely literary controversy between More on the one hand and Christopher St. German, another lawyer, on the other, as sufficient evidence of the excellence of the English priesthood when it is supported by the pious exhortations of William de Melton.

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Erasmus is given a chapter to himself, as one of the foremost witnesses to the learning and character of the English clergy in the pre-Reformation period. Our author may be forgiven his use of Erasmus, since he only follows the example of every predecessor in selecting from the voluminous writings of the man what suits his purpose, without any critical inquiry as to its meaning or value. To prove anything by Erasmus is as easy and as foolish as to prove it by texts of Scripture. A descriptive chapter on the "Lutheran Invasion" elaborates the notion that any slight discontent in England was with reference to temporal, rather than spiritual, questions, and carefully obscures the fact that precisely this mingling of temporal and spiritual was the very essence of the sin of Rome.

The obvious intention of the chapter on the English Bible is to leave the impression on the reader that the Church desired nothing more then, as it had always done, than to place the vernacular Bible in the hands of every one. Its only anxiety was that the translation should be "accurate." Its complaint against Tyndale was, not that he had translated the Bible, but that he had made so many errors in his translation. Nor was this quite all—to err is human—but Tyndale's errors had been made with intention to carry heretical ideas. Even More, who, we are told, ought to know the meaning of evidence, objected to Tyndale's errors that, while the errors of Erasmus were made by a man sound in his doctrines, those of Tyndale, even when they were identical with those of Erasmus, deserved condemnation because they were the work of a heretic. This circular reasoning suits Dr. Gasquet for a similar reason, because it is performed by a man otherwise of sound mind. The real animus of his argument here appears in his condemnation of all commentaries not emanating from authority, and here, of course, we touch the gist of the matter. The Church must always oppose the open vernacular Bible, because the open Bible must lead to private interpretation, and therein the triumph of Protestantism is assured.

In speaking of Teaching and Preaching, Dr. Gasquet aims to correct the common error, that the pre-Reformation Church had neglected these parts of its function, and unduly emphasized its sacramental character. On the contrary, we have books of instruction for private devotion which prove that the Church did not neglect teaching, and Thomas More defends the use of images and saint-worship, which proves that the people were not at all given to superstition, but saw through the sign and the ceremony to the spiritual significance behind it.

The purpose of the last four chapters upon Parish Life; Pre-Reformation Guild Life; Mediæval Wills, Chantries, and Obits; Pilgrimages and Relics, seems to be to show that there was in England, on the eve of the Reformation, a deal of religious activity, manifesting itself in many forms. Especially we are given illustrations of endowments for charity, including a provision for the soul of the donor. We are indebted to Dr. Gasquet for all the detail he has gathered on these points. We wish he had gathered a great deal more, for the historian can use every such contribution and asks nothing better. It is only with the conclusion drawn by the author that we are in total disagreement. This very activity in religious life, so far as it went, was one of the essential sources of the Protestant movement everywhere. Life cannot spring out of death, and the elements of new, forward-looking life for the nation were all most abundantly present in those countries which threw off the system of Rome. It is easy to point, as Gasquet and all his school are glad to do, to the confusion of the Reformation period; its comparative indifference to æsthetic development; its religious wars; its doctrinal excesses; its bigotries and its persecutions; but that is a narrow and unhistorical judgment of the Reformation, condemned by every chapter of the history of the modern peoples. We welcome this book and all its kind, for the service they do in showing the irreconcilableness of the issue between the Roman principle and everything the modern world has come to value and respect.

Chopin: The Man and his Music. By James Huneker. Scribners. Pp. 415.

Many of those who read Mr. Huneker's chapter on "The Greater Chopin" in his diverting and suggestive volume entitled 'Mezzotints in Modern Music,' must have hoped that he might find time and inclination to write a whole volume on that composer, who has gradually come to hold in the piano world the same commanding position that Wagner does in the field of opera. The hoped-for volume is now in existence, and will at once take its place in the front rank of books on its subject. It is divided into two parts, the first giving a sketch of Chopin's life, personality, and style, under five heads: "Poland: Youthful Ideals"; "Paris: in the Maelstrom"; "England, Scotland, and Père la Chaise"; "The Artist"; "Poet and Psychologist"; while the second part analyzes in detail the studies, preludes, impromptus, and valses, nocturnes, ballads, sonatas, polonaises, and mazurkas of the great Polish composer.

Although the list of publications bearing on Chopin is already considerable, as Mr. Huneker's six bibliographic pages show, a volume just like his was much needed; that is, a book which will serve as a Baedeker to the treasures of Chopin's art. Prof. Niecks, it is true, analyzes these compositions in still greater detail than Mr. Huneker does, but he is so erratic in his judgments that true Chopinists must regret that he ever undertook to write a standard work on their idol. Mr. Huneker has a much keener instinct for what is best in Chopin. In his 'Mezzotints,' indeed, he went too far in extolling the deeper and less-known works at the expense of the more familiar ones; but his new volume avoids this error, and no pianist, amateur or professional, can rise from the perusal of his pages without a deeper appreciation of the new forms of beauty which Chopin has added, like so many species of orchids, to the musical flora of the nineteenth century.

As a rule, Mr. Huneker's judgments are refreshingly original or unconventional. Only once does he permit himself to parrot the traditional talk of pedants in his remarks on the Chopin sonata, which, as he says, "has caused almost as much warfare as the Wagner music drama." The attitude he takes in charging Chopin with "failure" is the less comprehensible inasmuch as he himself remarks: "Come, let us confess, and in the open air: there is a great amount of hypocrisy and cant in the matter." The charge that there is no organic unity between the movements of a Chopin sonata is quite true; but the same is true of the sonatas of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven; and why Chopin should always be held responsible for the shortcomings of an imperfect and artificial form of composition which he only employed casually, while the real culprits, who sinned in it against organic art all their lives, are allowed to escape, is one of those mysteries of musical criticism which baffle explanation, and should perhaps be regarded simply from a humorous point of view. Mr. Huneker is noted for his keen wit and genial humor, which often enliven his pages; but in this instance he surely nods. Here, and in his remarks on Chopin's chamber music (which, in the opinion of the present writer, is more *interesting* than Beethoven's), he might have benefited by absorbing the wisdom of Dr. J. Schucht's remarks in his little book on Chopin (pp. 64-66), a book to which he refers only once, though there is more to be learned from it regarding the true inwardness of Chopin than from the voluminous Niecks.

The most entertaining pages of Mr. Huneker's new book are naturally the first 135, in which he gives a condensed, yet anything but dry or encyclopædic, sketch of Chopin's life. There is much that is uncertain in regard to the facts of that life, and Mr. Huneker has once more sifted the evidence regarding them carefully, so that his dictum may be considered as the last word. He justly takes every opportunity to emphasize the manliness of Chopin, who has so often been represented as effeminate. He did, indeed, lack the brusque manners of a Handel or a Beethoven. He was a gentleman, in every sense of the word; he shrank from coarseness, and his careful attention to clothes and canes was simply an expression of his general fastidiousness. Mr. Huneker defends him against the charge of cowardice because he did not renounce his artistic ambitions and rush to Poland to fight for his country. He preferred to "put his patriotism, his wrath, and his heroism into his Polonaises; that is why we have them now instead of Chopin having been the target of some black-browed Russian." "He had the warrior in him, even if his mailed fist was seldom used. There are moments when he discards gloves and soft phrases, and deals blows that reverberate with formidable clangor." "He had dark moments when the keyboard was too small, his ideas too big for utterance."

While not without sympathy with the feminine side of Chopin's genius, as revealed in the capricious mazurkas, the dainty valses, and the dreamy nocturnes, Mr. Huneker loves most to dwell on the manly side of his art, too, as reflected in the études, the polonaises, the ballads, and the scherzos. The masterly chapter of 74 pages on the études will soon be found indispensable by all teachers and students of the pianoforte. It embodies the results not only of Mr. Huneker's personal studies (he has been for years a teacher as well as a journalist and critic), but of the painstaking investigations of eminent foreign editors of Chopin, notably Klindworth, Bülow, Kullak, and Riemann. In these studies Chopin "fused the technical problem with the poetic idea"; they are "poems

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fit for Parnassus, yet they also serve a very useful purpose in pedagogy." "In the years to come, the Chopin studies will be played for their music, without any thought of their technical problems." Mr. Huneker might have added that even now there are more frequent demands in concert-halls for repetitions of the études than of any other pieces by the same composer.

Style is a thing one does not usually expect in books on musical topics, but Mr. Huneker writes with a pen that knows how to clothe even well-known facts in words that make them seem new. It is this quality, and the constant references to other arts and contemporary literature, that make the musical books of Mr. Huneker, who seems to be an omnivorous reader, attractive to others besides musicians. Once in a while he uses a word—like Riemann's dreadful, though useful, "agogic"—which he ought to take pains to explain.

Quaker Campaigns in Peace and War. By William Jones. With eleven illustrations. London: Headley Brothers. 1899. Pp. xiv, 412.

Turning from the unreal, unnecessary books with which our tables are sometimes crowded, it is refreshing to take up a volume such as this, not altogether artistically put together, not written in the best trained literary style, not always well balanced, but instinct with human interest. It recounts the main experiences of a life, now aged seventy-four, commenced as a Quaker Welsh-speaking lad in a primitive Denbighshire village, leading on, in manhood, to association in the projects of Stephenson and the Peases in early railway industrial development in England, and in the world-wide Quaker philanthropy of those days. Mr. Jones was one of the Commissioners sent by the Society of Friends to distribute relief in France in 1870-'71. He managed sulphur mines in Sicily. Again, he was engaged in missions of mercy in Bulgaria after the massacres. Few non-combatants were ever afforded better opportunities for realizing the horrors of war. The impressions and convictions so formed led to his devoting much of his later life to the cause of peace and arbitration. The latter half of the book, not so interesting as the first portion, is principally devoted to the author's travels in Australasia and America in such capacity. We are afforded many interesting relations of intercourse with important personages—Stephenson, William E. Foster, the Peases, Cardinals Manning and Antonelli; Prince Bismarck and other German notabilities; John Bright, O. W. Holmes, Whittier, President Cleveland, and many others. A conversation with Antonelli in the Vatican, on Quaker theory and practice, is one of the most interesting episodes related in the book.

Did space permit we might quote passages by the dozen. How the military operations of the past few years and of the present sink into comparative insignificance before the 19,000 that fell at Gravelotte within a few hours! Mr. Jones and his brother Commissioners had many hairbreadth escapes, yet, upon the whole, our wonder is how they managed to live and move about amid the shock of contending armies and the unutterable horrors of the time and untold sufferings to man and beast. His certificate or passport authorization, of which we are given a facsimile, is indeed a curiosity in its way—sufficient in itself to establish the merit of any collection of autographs. The simplicity is to be excused with which he relates his efforts to add to its value by fresh additions. We cannot but long to know whether the identity and name have ever been established of the young American doctor who at Metz devoted himself to the thousands of "black-typhus" cases, who succumbed, and who, like those he sought to serve, died untended, and was, like them, huddled into a pit of quicklime. Memory of the almost incredible Bulgarian atrocities is refreshed as we follow our author's footsteps. We stand appalled at the responsibility of the nations which then barred the extension of Russian power, and which later failed to make good their engagements concerning the Armenians, who never would have suffered as they did had Russia's hands not then been stayed.

The preface to this book is dated May of last year. The latter pages are full of hope and assurance consequent on the Czar's peace proposals. "By the overtaxed and conscripted victims of militarism, as by every lover of peace, this 'olive branch from the Neva' was hailed as a boon fraught with untold blessings." How little did the author then realize that, before many months had passed, the statesmanship of his own country would lead to one of the bloodiest of wars since 1870-'71, and that the passions of his countrymen would be so aroused that the preaching of peace and arbitration would be, as was abolition with us forty years ago, stigmatized, even by a religious journal, as dangerous "as firing off a pistol in a public thoroughfare," and that many of his own coreligionists would be for war to the bitter end.

It were to be wished that all the illustrations in this interesting volume were as good as the vignette portrait of the author.

History of Ancient Philosophy. By W. Windelband. Authorized translation, from the second German edition, by Herbert Ernest Cushman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. 8vo, pp. 393.

A manual of the history of Greek philosophy in one volume, rather large than small, but not redoubtable in bulk, by giving as much upon this subject as nine out of ten intellectual persons care to read (unless it be Plato and parts of Aristotle, with dippings into later writers) may, in view of the extent to which it will be used, be a more important publication than if it were larger. At any rate, greater care is incumbent upon the reviewer, since many of its readers will be less able to judge of its merits unaided. Here, then, is a judicious work, on most points up to date, whose author does not plume himself so much on brilliant theories that set all the evidence at defiance, as upon giving a clear insight into the development of ancient philosophy according to the best established opinions of to-day. As for those *teretesmata* so universally found in German books, he is rather fond of transfixing them with the pins of good sense. This feature makes the book enjoyable, and worth consulting even by those who are *au fait* in the controversies. In short, if there is another compendious manual of ancient philosophy in any language as illuminative and trustworthy as this, we have not the advantage of acquaintance with it.

The faults of Windelband's presentation are not trifling; but the worst of them are common to all works that are based on the modern critical treatment of ancient history—the method that has received so many hard knocks from archæology. In the first place, notwithstanding what has been just said of the *relative* merits of this history, it does not always escape being drawn into the common German fault of discarding all the premises in our possession in favor of what the critic is disposed to think likely. We note one place where this tendency is betrayed by a single word. Speaking of the simple propositions in geometry that the Greeks attributed to Thales, he says:

"It may be safely concluded in every instance that these elementary propositions were generally known to the Greeks of his time."

Concluded? A conclusion requires premises; but such premises are altogether in default. Windelband would more accurately have said *guessed*. There seems to be an ineradicable confusion in the minds of German philosophers and critics between what is concluded and what is guessed. In the present instance, our own guess, founded on psychological considerations (without which we would refuse even to guess), would be the opposite of Windelband's, and it would be backed up by positive tradition, which, without being at all conclusive, is certainly worth more than nothing. It is very true that upon most points in the history of Greek philosophy, more especially before Socrates (but often later, too), the testimony is open to so much suspicion that if we accept it we may be morally sure we shall often be led into error. But when a conclusion to which all the premises converge is, nevertheless, open to grave doubt, the situation cannot be mended by reversing that conclusion. Uncertainty is simply unavoidable in such cases; and we may as well make up our minds at the outset that the only way to escape being often deceived about the history of ancient philosophy is to abandon the study of it altogether. "This is not demonstrated," is the laughable phrase that is perpetually running from the tongues and pens of modern critics. Do they imagine, then, that any of their dicta about ancient philosophy *are* demonstrated? A large proportion of them are pet hobbies which nobody but their authors ever accepted; and perhaps half of the rest are things which it has become the fashion in the universities to assert without any ratiocinative process whatsoever—sheer guesses, like the above about Thales.

For the pre-Socratic philosophy, Aristotle's authority is so all-important that it is impossible to discuss it intelligently until his status has been settled, and the doubts that are rife concerning the authenticity of what some scholars are fond of calling "the so-called Aristotelian writings" have been duly weighed. Windelband does not half inform the reader upon what those doubts are grounded, while he shows that he is not free from the fault that we have been criticising by calling the positive affirmations of Strabo (partly confirmed by Athenæus) to the effect that Aristotle's original manuscripts lay *perdus* in a cellar for a century and a half—by calling these positive assertions "a very venturesome theory." But there is a part of the story, so much as happens to suit him, that Windelband accepts. Again, he denies that the "Parme-

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nides," "Sophistes," and "Politicus" were written by Plato, contrary to his usual respect for the testimony of Aristotle even regarding matters remote from his purview, though really one does not see why he should respect that testimony, if it consists of an aggregation of irresponsible glosses, as the theory is. As for the stylometric proofs, strong as iron, of the authenticity of the three dialogues, they smack so much of archæology as to put a "higher critic" quite out of sorts at their mere mention. While Windelband rejects the three dialogues as spurious, he is inclined to accept their testimony (if such it can be called) as to Parmenides and Socrates having had a discussion.

We have used so much space in setting forth this complaint against Windelband, that we can only just indicate several others. An effect, perhaps, of the German professors' habit of using a hundred words to disguise an idea that might have been precisely expressed in ten, is that Dr. Windelband, instead of endeavoring to carry the reader back to the naïve thoughts of the ancients, sometimes reports the ancients as expressing opinions about questions of modern philosophy. He also, like other historians, is given to reading into ancient philosophy a degree of consecutiveness and consistency which there is not only no satisfactory evidence for, but which is contrary to such evidence as we possess. Thus, he rejects the three dialogues of Plato just mentioned because they are contrary to the doctrine of ideas contained in the 'Republic,' etc., although Aristotle and others inform us that Plato changed his mind on that subject. Finally, we may justly complain that though this book has now been before the public for eleven years, some of its most singular positions have never yet been fully argued out by the author, anywhere.

The translation is authorized; but it need not therefore be correct. In many places correct it cannot be, if the author had any meaning at all. Here are a few random examples of what one finds in numbers on every page: "The Pythagoreans seem to be the first independently to discover the spherical shape of the earth" (p. 23). "There were men, otherwise favorably conditioned in life, who took a direct and immediate interest in knowledge" (p. 25). This "otherwise" is not English. Read: "Men in good circumstances, too." "The fact that a cloud of myths should thicken from century to century around him, makes it necessary to go back to the oldest accounts" (p. 29). What should this "should" mean?

Of course, such phrases as "He was born as the son of Mnesarchus," and "Here was still a more motley mixture," patter upon us like rain. Inverted sentences, tempests of conjunctions and phrases having the force (or forcelessness) of conjunctions, *ifs* used in place of *although*, *ifs* within *ifs*, *all the mores*, *just thereins*, come upon us topsy-turvy in a way to make the perusal like trying to study while suffering from seasickness, such uncontrollable nausea does the unwonted tilting and pitching of the sentences produce. If the publishers had set their foot down about this matter, they might have done Dr. Cushman and his readers a signal service. We can only wish now that something may happen to the plates, because the book is one which is destined to be in use for a long time.

Psychologie du Socialisme. Par Gustave Le Bon. Paris: Félix Alcan. 1899.

The Psychology of Socialism. By Gustave Le Bon. Macmillan. 1899.

The manner in which M. Le Bon presents his theories is interesting, and even fascinating. He delights in generalizations of the broadest kind, and supports them with most effective illustrations. At his best, he suggests De Tocqueville, and many of his observations are of epigrammatic brilliancy. They are penetrating, too, but we cannot regard the author's insight as profound. He can hardly be described as a philosopher, in spite of his philosophical generalizations and oracular utterances. His references to American affairs show such carelessness or ignorance as to make us distrust his other inferences. He says, "It would never enter an American's mind to require the state to establish railways, ports, universities, etc." Yet there is so much truth in his theories, and they are so engagingly presented, as to captivate the reader.

When we try to analyze the political philosophy which characterizes these essays, we find it comparatively simple. It suggests the doctrine of the fixity of species. The Latin peoples, in M. Le Bon's view, are incapable of self-government. They possess little "initiative." They are not self-reliant, and it is immaterial what name they give their government; for, no matter what they call it, it is always despotic. The French have had centralization bred into them for so many generations that it has become a part of their constitution, or nature. A society, M. Le Bon says, with its institutions, its beliefs, and its arts, represents a tissue of ideas, sentiments, customs, and modes of thought determined by heredity, the cohesion of which constitutes its strength. Such a product cannot be refashioned in accordance with the theories of philosophers. This truth, however, is not appreciated by the writers or the peoples of the Latin states. As in the time of the Revolution, it is believed to-day that governments may be renovated by changing their constitutions. It is on a belief of this kind that socialism rests. It is a kind of religion, or perhaps rather a substitute for religion. It offers hope through better material conditions to those who have ceased to think of better spiritual conditions. It is impracticable, but it is none the less dangerous.

For the great power of such beliefs, M. LeBon contends, lies in the fact that their propagation is independent of the proportion of truth or error that they may contain. When a belief "has gained a lodging in the minds of men, its absurdity no longer appears; reason cannot reach it, and only time can impair it." Socialism, which is substituting itself for the ancient faith, has but a low ideal, to establish which it appeals to the base sentiments of envy and hatred. Nevertheless, it stands to many for reform and progress; it holds out hopes of comfort and happiness. Hence it is probably destined to exercise an even greater influence than at present, although it will not be long before it is abandoned in disappointment. The conditions of existence have improved in modern times, but dissatisfaction with them has increased. The modern man, despoiled of religion, attaches himself eagerly to the present, the only reality he can seize. "Interested only in himself, he wishes at all costs to rejoice in the present hour, of whose brevity he is so sensible. In default of his lost illusions he must enjoy well-being and consequently riches." Since riches do not fall to him, he thinks that he should have a share of what fortune has given to others, and regards all large accumulations of property as iniquitous. Hence it is evident that the fundamental principle of Socialism is to have something done for the man dissatisfied with his condition. He is not to help himself, but to be helped; and as the Latin peoples have long since learned to look to the Government for everything, they find Socialism a perfectly natural and consistent creed.

M. LeBon is most successful when he describes particular classes, such as the Parisian workingmen, and the "Demi-Savants and Doctrinaires." Somewhat inconsistently, from our point of view, he is an enthusiastic supporter of the army, and violently assails those who criticise it. He affords in this way an illustration of his own doctrine of the survival of ancestral beliefs and feelings, for his criticisms of the Government of France apply as much to military as to civil institutions. These criticisms are extremely severe, and there is evidence enough from other sources to make us believe them well founded. Not only the French, but the Latin peoples in general, are paying for the errors of the past. The Inquisition extirpated the elements of progress in Spain, and the expulsion of the Huguenots from France is one of the most potent causes of her present decay. Her population is stationary, and it is maintained by the selection of the most inferior types. It is one of M. LeBon's pet theories that the worth of a nation depends on the number of remarkable men it produces, and France now produces few, and can produce few, under her present institutions. She is strong in intelligence, but weak in energy and character, and the destinies of such nations fall into the hands of their governments. "Reducing to a minimum the source of energy and initiative which the individual must possess to conduct his life, and freeing him from all responsibility, Collectivism seems for these reasons well adapted to the needs of nations whose will, energy, and initiative have progressively decayed."

It is difficult to convey a just idea of M. Le Bon's arguments, but we may say of them that they are impressive even if not free from fallacy. He reminds us often of Mr. Mallock, among English writers, and his attitude towards social problems is similar. We have marked many passages for quotation, but the book is so suggestive and so entertaining that it deserves to be read as a whole, and we commend it to all who desire to understand not merely the psychology of Socialism, but also the character and tendency of modern political movements in Europe.

We close with a single reflection. Is it possible that the paternal conception of a state, common to all except very modern communities, can have so imposed itself upon the Latin races that they alone cannot grasp the rival idea of individualism, and of the state as an agency? Individualism we may have in our blood; but certainly half our ideas of political freedom were derived from France, and it is difficult to believe that a nursery of political freedom should be inevitably doomed to become the stronghold of

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economical and social slavery. We can hardly resist the conclusion that if France and the Latin races are doomed, we shall not, in the end, long escape their fate, for "individualism" is, with us, attacked on every side by influences similar to those which are at work in France. We, too, must live by faith, yet have no faith except in the religion of economic delusion; we are encouraging militarism; we have universal suffrage; we try to make the poor believe that if they had their "rights" they would all be rich; we multiply offices in order to make places for the dependents of parties who live by placemen's support and work; we do all in our power to reward the demagogue who deceives and the boss who bleeds us. Had we M. Le Bon's cleverness of description we think we could make out strong grounds for thinking that we, too, had entered upon the socialistic stage, and were nearing that happy period in which individuality and exceptional character and intellect shall have become vices, and we shall all be day-laborers or Bellamyite stipendiaries of a state which shall not only furnish us with free water and gas, but provide board and lodging and clothes at a very low figure. Of course the multimillionaires rise up to confute us; but then it is the intention of Socialism to do away with multimillionaires. We very much doubt whether it is advisable for Anglo-Saxondom to pride itself too much on individualism as a safeguard against what M. Le Bon describes. It is perfectly true that we are not as the French are, but it is also true that the early Romans were freemen and their descendants slaves.

The Klondike Stampede. By Tappan Adney, Special Correspondent of *Harper's Weekly*. Harper & Bros. 1900.

This is a much-belated work on the Klondike, which, except for a retrospect contained in two pages and intended to cover more recent happenings, carries the events of the busy north no further than the early autumn of 1898. It has neither preface nor index. The title-page bears the imprint of the year 1900, but the reader will hardly be guided by this in his determination of the periods which appertain to the narration; nor can he without difficulty, from the rather indefinite reference to years, construct the historical sequence of the events which the book recites. Thus, on page 383 we have the statement: "Where last year two ocean vessels met at St. Michael, the five steamers that supplied Dawson," etc.—a plain indication that a part of the work was written in 1898. Somewhat similar references abundantly scattered throughout the 470 pages make it clear that they were, in the bulk, prepared at the same time. As a guide to the "modern" Klondike, therefore, the book has little value; indeed, from the rather ancient descriptions which the author gives of Dawson and of the methods and workings of the adjacent gold district, the reader will be apt to draw a very misleading picture of the conditions now actually existing in the region, or that have prevailed during the better part of two years.

As a close, even if incoherent, statement of the minute happenings of the years 1897 and 1898, and of personal experiences during the "cruder" and more interesting period of the Klondike stampede, the book may be read with both interest and profit, and the historian will perhaps delight in its careful fixing of dates, which have been as patiently worked out for events like the introduction of the first turkey into Dawson as for the more consequential ones which make history. The author shows himself thoroughly familiar with the conditions prevailing at the time of his sojourn, and credit must be given him for the painstaking care with which he has attempted to ascertain the "true inwardness" of the happenings in the Klondike, official and otherwise.

The book is not free from errors of statement, some of which are seemingly typographical. Thus, the legend on the folded illustration-sheet facing page 384, showing the Main Street, Dawson, bears the date July, 1895(8); and on p. 385 we have the statement that by "November 15, 1899[8], the twenty miles to the summit was opened for traffic." The White Pass and Yukon Railway entered Bennett on July 6, 1899, having by that time completed the full traverse of the forty-two miles.

The Story of Moscow. By Wirt Gerrare. Illustrated by Helen M. James. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

This book consists of two parts, a useful and a useless one. Useful are the illustrations, and so much of the description as may serve as a guide to the things worth seeing in Moscow. Everything else, comprising three-fourths of the work, has very little, if any, value. Instead of giving a story of Moscow, as we expect from the title, we get mainly an ill-digested recital of massacres and horrors perpetrated at various times in the ancient capital of Russia. There is no method in the narration, and names are mentioned with a reckless abandon, as if the English reader had known them from childhood. Zaporogians, baskaks, ikonostas are given as matters of course; and of hopeless errors there is no end. Zaporogians and Cossacks figure side by side, as if they were distinct people; Bolgars are treated as Slavs, and Russian words like *bolotnaia*, "swamps," are, according to our author, of Tartar origin. The wife of the Tsar is now Tsarina and again Tsaritsa; the church Spass na Boru is mentioned now as St. Saviour's in the Wood, now as the Church of the Transfiguration, now as St. Saviour of the Pines; and similarly are treated other designations. Most absurd is the chapter in which Peter the Great is with impassioned partiality called the greatest barbarian that ever sat on the Russian throne, and in which his ancestors are praised to the sky. But probably most offensive is the author's parade of his knowledge of Russian, for here the mistakes are most abundant. Hardly a word is quoted correctly, and the quotations are, with few exceptions, from third-rate writers, and therefore difficult to verify. In one case, however, the author tries to heighten the effect by giving the original Russian side by side with his translation, and the result is amusing. The original has: "Since a native Russian, and not a foreigner [German], has gathered all the wisdom and obtained promotion"; for which the translation is: "Stolid, forlorn, mum and glum, Being Russian-born—not deaf and dumb." The transliteration of Russian words beggars description; the worst features of the French, German, and English systems are represented here, the same letters standing frequently for three or four distinct sounds. The most curious word thus spelled is Shtrchnev, which no English-speaking person, nor Russian either, could pronounce. To this must be added that the author has not read his proofs, for whole sentences make no sense as they stand, and such outlandish words as *Xram* are, evidently, not the printer's fault. It must be confessed that the author is quite right when he says, "I have produced little that is really original."

The Franco-German War, 1870-71. By Generals and Other Officers who took part in the Campaign. Translated and edited by Major-Gen. J. F. Maurice, C.B., Capt. Wilfred J. Long, and A. Sonnenschein. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Gr. 8vo, pp. 687. Illustrated. $7.00.

This very important work, originally published in Germany, has been admirably Englished under the editing of Gen. Maurice. Its plan is a separate treatment of each campaign by a carefully chosen officer who took part in it. Though it is distinctively German in its standpoint, it is not wanting in appreciation of the fine qualities and the courage of the French army, while pointing out the great faults of organization and the lack of grasp of the chiefs of the French general staff, which caused the ruinous reverses of the opening campaign that could never be retrieved. In the collaboration of different authors, in the form of the splendid volume, and in the abundance of illustrations by maps, landscapes, and a gallery of portraits of chief actors on both sides, the book will remind American readers of the Century War-Book, which is the model among us of an imposing presentation of military history. The long series of excellent reproductions of authentic portraits, from the Emperors Napoleon and William downward, will be especially prized by everybody who is interested in the story. The topographical maps of fields of battle, inserted in the text, are very numerous and very clear. The landscape views, whether from photographs or from sketches by artists, are both instructive and attractive. The introductory chapter on the origin of the war, by Prof. v. Pflugk-Harttung of Berlin, is a most clear and satisfactory treatment of the events after the Austro-Prussian war of 1866 which led Louis Napoleon into his fatal contest. In each chapter enough of stirring battle description and personal characterization is introduced to give life to the story, while the military standing of the author of each part is security for the accuracy and comprehensive clearness of the whole. Military men cannot afford to be without the book, and the general reader of history will find its interest a growing and lasting one. Its price represents the intelligent use of unstinted means to help the reader's easy comprehension of great events.

Il Ce-Kiang: Studio Geographico-Economico del Dott. Mario Carli. Rome: Forzani & Co.

One of the first literary fruits of the recent Italian naval operations in China and the determination of Italy to share in the prospective or desired "partition" of that empire is this attractively printed work of 278 pages, concerning the province in which the Grand Canal has its southern terminus

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and whose chief city Marco Polo so fully describes. The text proper is preceded by an elaborate historical introduction. In this, the author gives a rapid conspectus of ancient and mediæval China, and describes in considerable detail and with graphic power the various wars and diplomacy of recent years—that is, especially the campaigns with England and France, the Tai-ping rebellion, and the Chino-Japanese war of 1894-'95. The details of the negotiations of the treaty of 1886, between Italy and China, are also given, besides the text in fifty-five articles, and the accompanying commercial regulations. The chapter on "European Politics in China" is terse and illuminating. Then follow chapters treating of the four principal rivers of Che-Kiang, its seacoast, the channels of communication by land and water, the possibility of railways, and the general products of the province. The last division shows that this "province of the Crooked River," as the name means, though the smallest of the nineteen of China, is about the size of Ohio; that is, it contains nearly forty thousand square miles, and has from twelve to fifteen million inhabitants. The hilly southwestern parts produce the finest grades of tea, while those to the north and east, embracing the river flats and valleys, are rich in silk and manifold products chiefly of native consumption. Besides the capital, Hang-chau, and the large treaty port of Ningpo, there are the other seaports, Wen-chau, Tai-chau, and, in the north, the river port Chau-hing. The island of Chusan, or rather the archipelago of that name, together with the numerous other islands lying seaward and the many bays and indentations on the coast, gives this province an importance far beyond that which its area and population would suggest.

Dr. Carli is unusually full and satisfactory in those chapters which treat of the commercial movements and possibilities of each port and the regions adjacent. The book presents a valuable bird's-eye view of the general commercial and diplomatic situation at the present moment, and there are valuable statistical appendices and tables which furnish exactly the kind of precise information that the prospecting merchant, whether in or out of Italy, wishes to get. There is also an excellent folding map, showing with great clearness not only the face of the province, but its wonderful fringe of islands. The marrow of the book is in the "conclusion," in which the author sums up his impressions and gives a forecast. He is amazed at the extraordinary fertility of the soil, which is adapted to almost every product, but he sees that at present the native ways and means are those of the distant past. The great need, for both internal and external development, is of modern methods. Yet his advice is that only men of enterprise and initiative should attempt to grapple with the problem of the full development of Che-Kiang. While he believes that in time a great trunk line of railway should be built by Italians, to connect the main ports on the coast with the chief railway in central China, which will join the southern to the northern provinces, he recommends his countrymen not to think of this first, but to construct short lines and develop particular regions of the province. Thus they will build up permanent trade, and make feeders ready for the proper maintenance of the main line when that is attempted. He further believes that, instead of beginning at once a full volume of direct trade with Italy, it is best to develop facilities with those ports already doing a large business.

Concerning native capital, he says much timidity is shown among the Chinese towards the investment of money in local operations conducted by natives, and that most of that used or now circulating is "speculative"; that is, it is put into the hands of foreign firms and organizations in Shanghai and other treaty ports. Experience seems to have proved that it is through the foreigner, and the enterprises initiated and carried on by him, that the best returns are secured. In a word, the author of this valuable and timely treatise takes a conservative but hopeful view of Italian possibilities of trade with China, in what, judging from recent news, telling of the reënforcement of the Italian squadron on the China station, seems destined to be Italy's province or sphere of influence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Francis A. The Transgressors. Philadelphia: Independent Pub. Co.
Ascham, Roger. The Schoolmaster. [National Library.] Cassell & Co. 10c.
Bates, Arlo. Love in a Cloud. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bérard, Victor. L'Angleterre et l'Impérialisme. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 4 francs.
Black, Armstrong. The Evening and the Morning. American Tract Society. $1.
Boname, Louise C. Hand-Book of Pronunciation [French] for Advanced Grades. Philadelphia: L. C. Boname. 35c.
Cary, G. L. The Synoptic Gospels. Putnams. $2.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The Bath Comedy. Frederick A. Stokes & Co. $1.50.
Chester, N. A Plain Woman's Part. London: Edward Arnold. 6 shillings.
Clarke, Rev. J. C. C. Man and his Divine Father. Chicago: McClurg. $1.50.
Conyngton, T. The Organization and Management of a Business Corporation. Ronald Press. [Lawyers' Coöp. Pub. Co.] $1.50.
Dawson, A. J. Daniel Whyte; An Unfinished Biography. Brentano. $1.25.
Deville, G. The People's Marx. [Translated by R. R. La Monte.] The International Library Pub. Co.
Ellis, J. B. The Dread and Fear of Kings. Chicago: McClurg. $1.25.
Firth, C. Oliver Cromwell. Putnams. $1.50.
Grant, R. Unleavened Bread. Scribners. $1.50.
Greener, W. W. Sharpshooting for Sport and War. Truslove, Hanson & Comba. 50c.
Gregory, Eliot. The Ways of Men. Scribners. $1.50.
Grinnell, G. B. The Indian of To-day. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Hammond, John Hays. The Transvaal Trouble. The Abbey Press. 25c.
Horton, G. War and Mammon. Wausau, Wis.: Philosopher Press.
Jarrold, Ernest. Mickey Finn. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co.
Judson, H. P., and Bender, Ada C. Third Book, Graded Literature Readers. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 45c.
Keasbey, E. Q. The Law of Electric Wires in Streets and Highways. 2d ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $4.00.
Lee, Rev. F. T. Popular Misconceptions as to Christian Life and Faith. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
Macpherson, H. Herbert Spencer. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Pangborn, Major. The Cross or the Pound—Which? American News Co. 50c.
Rhees, R. Life of Jesus of Nazareth. Scribners. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. Ivanhoe. [Heath's English Classics.] Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50c.
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